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ABSTRACT

Regular issues of "Per Linguam" appear twice a year. The document consists of the six regular issues for the years 1985, 1986, and 1987. These issues contain the following 32 articles: (1) "SALT in South Africa: Needs and Parameters" (van der Vyver); (2) "An Analysis of SALT in Practice" (Botha); (3) "SALT and the Teaching of African Languages" (Roux); (4) "Suggestopedic Texts for Foreign Language Teaching" (Kussler and Bodenstein); (5) "Improving Emotive Communication: Verbal, Prosodic and Kinesic Conflict-Avoidance Techniques" (Arndt and Janney); (6) "Computers in the Writing Process--Advantage or Disadvantage?" (Botha); (7) "Some Psycholinguistic Conditions for Second Language Learning" (Spolsky); (8) "Penetrating Learning Barriers and the Art of Suggestion" (Dhority); (9) "Accelerated Learning Techniques for the Foreign Language Classroom" (Bancroft); (10) "Stories and Story Telling in First-Level Language Learning" (Blair); (11) "Holistic Methods of Foreign Language Instruction as Precursors of a Renewed Interest in the Theatre Arts for Language Teaching" (Jung); (12) "Arabic and Urdu in International Perspectives (Nadvi); (13) "Teaching Reading with Stories vs. Cognitive Hierarchy" (Fuller); (14) "Some Personal Observations of SALT, Suggestopedia and Other Accelerative Learning Methods in Japan and Europe" (Gassner-Roberts); (15) "Approaches to the Design of Language Teaching Software" (Phillips); (16) "Media Use in Distance Education in Sweden" (Davies); (17) "Video in Foreign Language Teaching (Hambrook); (18) "Radio Language Teaching in Kenyan Schools" (Imhoof); (19) "The Brain and Accelerative Learning" (Hand); (20) "The Microcomputer: A Tool for Personal Language Learning" (Wyatt); (21) "Suggestopedic Research in the GDR" (Gassner-Roberts); (22) "Error Analysis and Its Significance for Second Language Teaching and Learning" (Sobahle); (23) "An Overview of Project Intelligence" (de Capdevielle); (24) "English and Operacy for Teachers" (van der Vyver); (25) "Shakespeare through Suggestopedia?" (Swart); (26) "A Computer Programme for Sentence Comprehension" (Felix); (27) "The Effect of Campus Unrest on the Language Proficiency of University Students" (Allardice); "A Xhosa Communicative Test for Senior L2 Pupils" (Gxilishe); (29) "Raising Achievement Levels by Means of Suggestopedia" (Odendaal); (30) "Speech Acts: The Communicative Revolution in Language Teaching" (Blunt); (31) "Designing an Afrikaans (Third Language) Communicative Syllabus" (Rousseau and Odendaal); (32) "The Role of Error Correction in Communicative Second Language Teaching" (Botha). (MSE)

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VOL 1 No 1 1985

## A Journal of Language Learning

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# PER LINGUAM

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PER LINGUAM (ISBN 0 7972 0054 1) verskyn twee maal per jaar—een elke semester—en word uitgegee deur die Instituut vir Taalonderrig, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Republiek van Suid-Afrika.

Die artikels in PER LINGUAM is onderworpe aan keuring. Manuskripte, boeke om geresenseer te word, en alle bydraes wat verband hou met die doel van die tydskrif, moet aan die Redakteur gestuur word.

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# Editorial

There are so many journals in the field of language teaching that it is only natural, especially in this era of the information explosion, to ask why a new journal should appear on the academic scene, making additional demands on those precious commodities: time and creative energy.

**The main concern and focal point of PER LINGUAM (Through** or **By means of Language)** will be **language and communication in Southern Africa** (the Republic of South Africa and its neighbouring states) **in an attempt to improve relations between, and the quality of life of, all its people**.

Although published by the Institute for Language Teaching, University of Stellenbosch, PER LINGUAM is an independent journal with its own Editorial Committee and Editorial Advisory Board with members drawn from a wide range of academic establishments, both South African and overseas. It is not affiliated to any particular association or interest group.

As will be seen from the list of names, the Editorial Advisory Board consists of specialists internationally known in the field of Applied Linguistics. It is the desire of the Editorial Committee to expand the Board to become representative of an even wider spectrum of views, thereby reflecting the major aim of the journal: co-operation between academics of different political, religious and cultural backgrounds to the advantage of the peoples of Southern Africa.

It should hardly be necessary to argue the case for improved communicative skills, especially at the inter-group level, and thus for improved and accelerated language teaching, learning and training in this part of the world.

The need for more effective communication and therefore for a communicative approach to language teaching has been recognized and emphasized by official and independent commissions on education as well as by individual protagonists in Southern Africa. The recognition of some of the diseases, specifically in South Africa's multicultural and multilingual (and politically and socially fragmented) society has led to the planning or production of communicative syllabi for schools and teacher training institutions by numerous committees and language specialists.

The design of a communicative syllabus in place of the old grammar-oriented syllabus is an encouraging development but marks only the beginning of a long-awaited change in language teaching. In an area of the world which is becoming increasingly isolated from the main stream of academic activity, where more than 70% of Black teachers are underqualified, there is a desperate need for lecturers, teacher trainers, researchers and all those involved in decision-making at the top levels of the educational hierarchy to pay increasing attention to

- understanding the importance and nature of needs analyses arising from discourse analysis
- understanding the nature of language acquisition and learning
- understanding the principles of syllabus design
- the preparation and development of language teaching materials as well as the selection and application of instructional strategies
- setting objectives and evaluating progress in the classroom
- evaluating courseware and utilizing educational technology, especially in the application of television and computers

- research methods and activities concerning language communication in Southern Africa
- more effective training, in-service training sessions, workshops and seminars.

PER LINGUAM wants to provide a forum for the discussion of new developments and techniques in language teaching by specialists in Southern Africa and in the rest of the world, in the hope that this journal may become a unifying force towards improved communication and better understanding in this part of the continent of Africa.

A journal can only exist and flourish with the support of contributors and we appeal to all those in the field of language teaching who feel that they can assist in achieving the aims of the journal, to become involved in building a better future for the peoples of Southern Africa.

The articles in this first number of PER LINGUAM deal with issues which are central to the aims of the journal:

In the first of four articles, which should be seen as a unit, van der Vyver draws attention to some of the most pressing educational and language communication needs in the Republic of South Africa and emphasizes the urgency for accelerated programmes for teaching and learning. Botha, Roux and Kussler/Bodenstein deal with specific initiatives that have been started in response to the needs outlined in the first article. (These four articles have been accepted for publication in the *Journal for Accelerative Learning and Teaching*, Vol. 9 no. 3 1984. It is published here with the permission of the Editor.)

In the fifth article Arndt and Janney suggest how emotive communication can be improved and how supervisor-worker conflicts can be reduced.

In the final contribution, Botha highlights possibilities for the improvement of writing with the help of educational technology, especially microcomputers.

D.H. van der Vyver
L. Proctor

> *A strategic vision is a clear image of what you want to achieve, which then organizes and instructs every step toward that goal.*
> *– John Naisbitt*

PER LINGUAM VOL. 1 NO. 1 1985

# SALT in South Africa: needs and parameters

Dawid H. van der Vyver

This article highlights some of the most pressing educational and language communication needs in the Republic of South Africa and emphasizes the urgency for accelerated programmes for teaching and learning. It further outlines and explains specific initiatives that have been started with in response to the needs described and it suggests an approach for the possible wider application of SALT in South Africa.

Hierdie artikel belig 'n aantal van die dringendste opvoedkundige en kommunikatiewe behoeftes in die Republiek van Suid-Afrika. Die noodsaaklikheid van versnellingsprogramme vir die onderwys word beklemtoon. Verder omlyn en verduidelik dit spesifieke inisiatiewe waarmee begin is as antwoord op die bestaande behoeftes. Ten slotte word gesuggereer dat SALT in Suid-Afrika nog veel verder uitgebrei kan word.

## Desperate needs

### *The need for inter-cultural communication*

The population of South Africa totalled 28,6 million in 1980. (All the figures quoted in this document are based on information obtained from the Institute for Futures Research, University of Stellenbosch, with one exception: The figures on teacher qualifications are based on information in the *Main Report of the HSRC Investigation into Education* [HSRC 1981]. It should further be pointed out that for the purposes of this article the figures for the so-called Independent National States [Bophuthatswana, Venda, Ciskei and Transkei] have been included.)

The major languages spoken by the almost 30 million people are Afrikaans, Arabic, Dutch, English, French, German, North Sotho, Portuguese, South Sotho, Telegu, Tsonga, Tswana, Urdu, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu. There is a growing realization that there is a desperate need for accelerated inter-cultural communication and understanding, especially between Black and White. It is being regarded increasingly as an essential prerequisite for harmonious development towards a healthier society in South Africa (e.g.: Increasing numbers of White primary schools are introducing an African language.)

### *The need for language training in industry*

The importance of effective language communication in industry in South Africa has recently been emphasized *inter alia* in the *Main Report of the HSRC Investigation into Education* (HSRC 1981). On page 147 the reader finds the following quotation from Jupp (1975):

> Industrial training should include language teaching as an essential component.

No appointments at senior levels, no promotion, no effective negotiation is possible without efficient language communication skills.

A quick glance at some of the considerations should suffice to bring us to the formulation of the next set of needs.

Swart (1981:46) points out that by the turn of the century, only 7% of the new recruits into the labour market will be Whites. The country will therefore rely more and more on *trained* and *trainable* Black employees to fill situations traditionally occupied by Whites.

If we further consider that probably more than 90% of the Whites in the formal economy are not capable of communicating effectively in an African language, and that 58,12% of the 4,8 million Blacks employed in all sectors of the formal economy in the year 1982 were functionally illiterate (the Institute for Futures Research, University of Stellenbosch, defines the functionally illiterate person as one with five or fewer years of schooling), we get some perspective on the enormous need for:

- literacy training
- upgrading of communication skills in Afrikaans and English (i.e. the two official languages in South Africa) for Blacks in industry
- developing courses in African languages for Whites.

***The need for training and in-service training of teachers***

The figures given below highlight some of the country's most serious inequalities and needs in education.

*Table 1*

**Black school children**

**Pupils**

| **1980** | **2000** (projected) |
|---|---|
| 4,8 million | 9,1 million |

*Table 2*

**Teacher population**

| | **1980** | **2000** |
|---|---|---|
| Blacks | 102 000 | 450 000 |
| Whites | 51 000 | 41 000 |

**(This figure is not a projection but is normative in the sense that it indicates the number of teachers needed for a ratio of one teacher to twenty pupils, which would equal the 1980 ratio for Whites.)**

*Table 3*

**Pupil-teacher ratio**

| | **1980** | **2000** |
|---|---|---|
| Blacks | 1:47 | 1:20 |

(Again, this is a normative figure.)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Whites | 1:20 | 1:20 |

*Table 4*

**Qualifications of teachers in 1978**

1 **Without teachers' diploma**

| | **White** | **Black** |
|---|---|---|
| Degree | 34,33 % | 2,45 % |
| Grade 12 (Standard 10) | 65,67 % | 15,09 % |
| Grade 10 (Standard 8) | | 62,90 % |
| Grade 8 (Standard 6) | | 18,56 % |
| Total | 100 % | 100 % |

2 **With teachers' diploma**

| | **White** | **Black** |
|---|---|---|
| Degree | 32,18 % | 1,43 % |
| Grade 12 | 67,82 % | 13,90 % |
| Grade 10 | | 84,67 % |
| Grade 8 | | |
| Total | 100 % | 100 % |

Two disturbing conclusions can be drawn from tables 1–4:

- **An enormous backlog in teacher training and in-service training exists in Black education. If the ratio of one teacher to twenty pupils is considered as ideal, the backlog in 1980 amounted to**

138 000 teachers. In 1978 more than 80% of all the teachers in Black schools had not even completed their own high school education.

- It is estimated that the number of Black schoolchildren will increase by 4,3 million or 90% from 1980 to 2 000.
- With equal educational standards in view, 17 400 teachers for Black education will have to be trained every year up to 2 000, starting in 1980. In 1982, only about 8 000 teachers were trained.

Over and above these alarming facts, all these Black teachers, apart from those solely responsible for the first few grades, are expected to teach through the medium of one of the two official languages, Afrikaans or English (mostly English). That means they have to communicate through a language *which is a foreign language* to most of them and for which most of them have not been suitably equipped.

It therefore becomes clear that there is a great need for

- an acceleration of existing training and in-service training programmes for Blacks
- strong emphasis on the requirement of communication skills in the official language that the teachers need as a medium of instruction.

**The search for unconventional solutions**

> Human history becomes more and more a
> race between education and catastrophe
> (H.G. Wells).

There is indeed a chilling relevance to the South African situation in Wells' judgement about the need for accelerated education.

The reason why South African educators are motivated to look at methods and technologies which can improve the quality of teaching and learning and at the same time accelerate the process, should be evident by now. It should be clear that educators in South Africa are *desperately* in need of solutions to problems that could create a catastrophe.

**Hypotheses about SALT and CALI (Computer-assisted language instruction)**

In any discussion of possible contributions towards meeting some of the needs outlined above, the applications of Suggestopedia/SALT should be considered.

In doing so, we hypothesize that the quality and accelerative effect of Suggestopedia/SALT, where it could be utilized in training centres, can benefit by integrating some of the attributes that computer-assisted instruction has to offer

- individualised instruction
- pretesting of students/trainees to determine the need for certain assignments
- immediate feedback
- effective learning management of large student/trainee audiences
- facilities for research on the effectiveness of testing and teaching.

We further hypothesize that the computer could become more effective as an instructional tool, if one could constantly consider the suggestopedic principles and utilize

- to a greater extent the possibilities offered by neurolinguistic programming
- guided phantasies, supported by Ericksonian techniques
- concerts
- to a greater extent SALT-related games and activities (Hofstetter [1982] focused attention on different studies indicating that computer-assisted instruction leads to acceleration of teaching and learning, better motivation and improved results.)

In doing so, the computer or microcomputer could become a far more effective instrument for teaching trainees and students in a country with such an acute shortage of skilled and qualified people.

Because of scepticism and resistance well-known in suggestopedic circles, a pragmatic approach should be adopted. We shall look for opportunities to convince educationists, decision-makers and ourselves that Suggestopedia not only works, but that it can work in South Africa in a very anti-suggestopedic environment. We shall also regard such opportunities as pilot projects that could indicate further possibilities for implementation as well as problems or weaknesses that need attention and assets or attributes that need further emphasis or research.

### The Stellenbosch SALT programme

In co-operation with and with the support of academics representing five Black universities in South Africa, the plans for a pragmatic SALT programme have gained momentum, especially since three of us attended Lynn Dhority's 1983 workshop in Ames, and since a contract was signed with South African Airways and 14 lecturers were trained for three weeks by Charles Schmid at the beginning of 1984 in Stellenbosch.

The Stellenbosch programme which started at the beginning of 1984 consists of the following coherent components, some of which are discussed in greater detail by other authors in this issue with specific reference to problems resulting from starting SALT in an anti-suggestopedic environment.

- An analysis of available reports on projects and experiments with Suggestopedia in Language Teaching
- An analysis of Suggestopedia from the perspective of established disciplines like neurolinguistics, neurology, psycholinguistics and educational psychology, as well as an analysis of the practical application of SALT in the German Department, University of Stellenbosch, for two experimental beginners groups
- A SALT course in Xhosa for beginners in the Department of Bantu languages, University of Stellenbosch
- A SALT course in German for beginners in the Department of German
- A SALT working or brainstorming group that meets regularly for psychological and academic support
- A project for South African Airways with SALT and CALI components.

### Conclusion

Although we see positive indications (*vide* other articles in this issue on SALT activities in South Africa) that SALT/Suggestopedia could be useful in improving the quality of education in South Africa as well as in accelerating teaching and training, it is clear that a very careful pragmatic approach is needed. We should strive, in co-operation with the international SALT community, to build a strong team. In doing so, we can create the scientific foundation without which, we believe, Suggestopedia/SALT will have little lasting effect.

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> *Nam tua res agitur, paries cum proximus ardet. (It is your own interest that is at stake when your next neighbour's wall is ablaze.)*
> *– Horace*

PER LINGUAM VOL 1 NO 1 1985

# An analysis of SALT in practice

## Ludolph Botha

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This paper analyses the use of SALT/Suggestopedia for the teaching of beginners' German to students at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa. Two experimental groups and a control group are involved to determine, amongst others, whether SALT is viable in South African conditions and whether it really accelerates the learning of a foreign language. This study is approached pragmatically and on a relatively small scale to ensure a sound basis. A number of challenges have been encountered of which the most important are the rigid system at a university (for example the timetable) and the difficulty of producing convincing, quantitative results. Qualitatively the students show an early competence and spontaneity not experienced before, in comparison with the control group. The most promising aspect is the fact that the lecturers of the experimental groups are convinced that Suggestopedia offers and satisfies the students as well as the lecturers much more than any other conventional method used by them.

In hierdie artikel word die gebruik van SALT/Suggestopedagogiek vir die aanleer van Duits op beginnersvlak geanaliseer, soos geimplementeer aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch. Twee eksperimentele groepe sowel as 'n kontrolegroep is betrek om onder meer te bepaal of SALT lewensvatbaar is in Suid-Afrikaanse omstandighede en of dit werklik die aanleer van 'n vreemde taal versnel. Hierdie studie is pragmaties aangepak en op 'n relatiewe klein skaal om 'n gesonde basis te verseker. 'n Aantal struikelblokke moes oorkom word, soos die onbuigbare sisteem aan 'n Universiteit (die rooster) en die probleem om oortuigende kwantitatiewe resultate te lewer. Kwalitatief gesproke, vertoon die studente 'n vroeë bekwaamheid en 'n spontaneïteit wat nog nooit tevore ondervind is nie. Die belowendste aspek is egter dat die lektore van die eksperimentele groep oortuig is dat Suggestopedagogiek meer te bied het, en lektore sowel as studente meer bevredig as enige ander konvensionele metode.

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**An analysis of SALT in practice**

In this article the focus will be on the practical application of SALT in the German Department at the University of Stellenbosch with special reference to inhibiting factors and challenges.

At Stellenbosch SALT is being applied in typical South African university conditions. The research is being done in a "realistic" situation, devoid of any special laboratory conditions or frequently described Suggestopedic/SALT courses offered during long, uninterrupted sessions.

**The German project**

There are three groups of students involved (two experimental and one control) learning beginners' German. The research is conducted with the following objectives:

- to determine as far as possible whether and to what extent SALT is applicable to and viable in South African conditions
- to compare the groups in relation to, amongst others, their progress, attitude towards German, and their motivation
- to evaluate the whole exercise quantitatively as well as qualitatively through, *inter alia*, biographical and attitudinal questionnaires, psychometric tests and objective language proficiency testing (the format of which has been decided on after consultation with language testing specialists)

- to determine the inhibiting factors and possibilities for further applications in view of communicative needs in Southern Africa.

### Approach

The implementation of SALT/Suggestopedia could be attempted in an ideological way: The method could be accepted as an ideal solution for major educational problems. One could thus be tempted to implement the system speedily on a very large scale. But, from the study of the literature, from observations and from our own limited experience we believe that the approach should be careful and pragmatic, as in a pilot project. When implementing SALT/Suggestopedia on a small scale we can learn, adapt, analyse and improve more easily as we gain experience.

Co-ordinated scientific support and justification must always be sought from other disciplines and groups. This will also pave the way for credibility of the programme and for wider acceptance in academic and educational circles.

### Inhibiting factors and challenges encountered thusfar

The following are being encountered:

- to be as pragmatic and innovative as possible in our fairly rigid and inflexible educational and anti-suggestopedic situation (e.g. adapting the SALT sequence to fit the rigid timetable of six forty minute lectures per week)
- considerable student fluctuation at the beginning of the year because of uncertainty about courses
- delays in psychometric testing as a result of interruptions and fluctuation at the beginning of the year. Because of these delays the students displayed definite reluctance to co-operate and only 51% of them completed all three psychometric tests
- a fixed timetable with forty minute lectures
- compulsory test series in the second term. The students are not only concerned about the testing in the SALT classes, but they are tempted to "skip" classes (even SALT classes) to study for tests in other subjects
- finding and equipping suitable venues for the SALT classes. It took some effort to convince the university authorities that the demands of the SALT team were not absurd, e.g. painting doors and doorframes yellow when they have got stores filled with white paint for that purpose
- producing scientifically defensible statements based on quantitative results. With only one year, a limited experiment and many adverse factors and variables it would be impossible to convince all sceptics. The following quotation typifies these sceptics: "Most of our so-called reason consists of finding reasons to go on believing as we already do." (J.H. Robinson)
- creating suitable texts for specific target groups
- co-ordinating research, support from academics from other disciplines, and teamwork. This is essential if this task is to be of more educational significance than academic or commercial interest
- the training of teachers. This is a complex and challenging task demanding high quality people as well as high quality training programmes. An insufficiently trained doctor using unfamiliar and complex techniques can cause a patient's death; similarly an ill-prepared SALT teacher can cause disaster: e.g. unrealistic expectations of accelerated progress and high-level proficiency and this will lead to failure, distrust and obviously the rejection of SALT. The training of SALT teachers should also be backed up by coordinated and concentrated academic and psychological support as an ongoing process—especially by experts in the fields of e.g. educational psychology, applied linguistics, neurology and psychotherapy.

### Encouraging indications

In spite of the inhibiting factors mentioned, the challenges are being met. The students in the group being taught according to the SALT method are extremely positive about their work. They enjoy their classes, speak German with enthusiasm and without inhibitions. The lecturers create a very special and suggestive atmosphere conducive to learning and seem to enjoy the classes just as much as the students (in spite of all their hard work). The lecturers also find that their students already display a superior passive as well as active knowledge of the language in comparison to the control group and students of previous years.

We hope to keep readers informed about the outcome of this particular project.

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# SALT and the teaching of African languages

Justus C. Roux

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It is well known that, within the broad theory of Suggestopedia, music is used in a specific manner so as to facilitate, *inter alia*, long-term memory. In this article attention is drawn to the use of music in the teaching of a tone language where variations in pitch levels within words may give rise to variations in meaning. The question is posed whether music, whilst enhancing reception and long-term memory may, at the same time, not be distorting the natural and even essential suprasegmental qualities of these languages which may be necessary for correct reception and semantic interpretation.

Dit is algemeen bekend dat daar—binne die breë terrein van die Suggestopedagogiek—musiek op 'n spesifieke manier gebruik word om, onder andere, die langtermyngeheue van die leerder te stimuleer en aan te help. In hierdie artikel val die klem op die gebruik van musiek in die onderrig van 'n toontaal waar variasies in toonhoogtes tot verskil in betekenis van 'n woord lei. Die vraag word gestel of musiek, terwyl dit die ontvangs en langtermyngeheue versterk, nie terselfdertyd die natuurlike en selfs noodsaaklike suprasegmentele kwaliteite van so 'n taal (wat nodig is vir korrekte ontvangs en betekenis) verwring nie.

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## SALT and the teaching of African languages

The application of SALT principles in the formal teaching of Xhosa at the University of Stellenbosch is, to the best of our knowledge, the first ever attempt of its kind at the teaching of African languages in Southern Africa. Apart from the obvious merits of these principles in general, and apart from successes already obtained in Xhosa classes, we would like to focus on a problem of a fundamental nature which may have implications for, *inter alia*, the teaching of tone languages.

The problem in general mainly centres around the actual purpose and use of the so-called Concert One in the traditional suggestopedic teaching/learning cycle. It is well known and appreciated that the use of music in the concert sessions forms an integral part of the learning process. Music clearly has the function of activating the right hemisphere of the brain and, conversely, relaxing the left hemisphere, thereby facilitating reception of a specific linguistic message. Furthermore, there is ample evidence in the literature that the retention and recall rate for material acquired in this manner is considerably better than for that acquired under other circumstances (Racle 1979:145). According to Schmid (1982:5) the specific purpose of the first concert is, *inter alia*,

- "to familiarize listeners with pronunciation rules;
- to help them savour the sounds of the language or words;
- to direct the language to the students' inner microphone for better retention and recall."

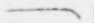
In order to achieve these purposes the teacher delivers the new material "in a specially intoned, dramatic function *guided by the music* [Schmid's emphasis] (tempo, dynamics, color, phrasing), integrating him/herself as a special instrument with the other musical voices. The diction should be pure and distinct, every word coming out clearly and well-moulded" (Schmid 1982:23 and also Racle 1979:139). The basic idea thus is that the voice of the teacher should "surf" along with the music, i.e. be varied in pitch, loudness, tempo stretched, shortened, etc.

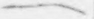
It is general knowledge that linguistic messages comprise at least two components, i.e. a semantic and a phonetic one. Whereas there may be languages where the phonetic component may be of some lesser importance, i.e. the semantic message may be conceived through minimum phonetic detail, most languages place a high premium on phonetic detail. It is therefore conceivable that Schmid (1982) rates the goal " – to familiarize listeners with pronunciation rules" quite highly. However, traditional phonetic approaches have in the past unjustly tended to separate (very often for "practical" reasons) segmental and supra-segmental qualities in the speech signal. While it may be of prime importance to pronounce a string of phonetic segments correctly so as to convey a specific linguistic message, it is equally important to acquire the correct intonation pattern as soon as possible as this is part and parcel of the linguistic message. Consider the following example where the sentences not only contain "exotic" segments, such as aspirated lateral clicks (orthographically represented by *xh*) which need to be pronounced correctly, but also significant suprasegmental tonal patterns:

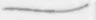
| | |
|---|---|
| úm̀Xhósà úbónà íthàngà | "The Xhosa sees a pumpkin" |
| úm̀Xhósà úbónà íthàngá | "The Xhosa sees a thigh" |
| úm̀Xhósà úbónà íthângà | "The Xhosa sees an outpost" |

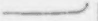
Where ´ represents a high tone, ` a low tone, and ˆ a falling (glide) tone.

When looking at the way in which linguistic messages are conveyed in Xhosa, one becomes aware of the structured interplay between segmental and suprasegmental phenomena. Xhosa, while being a tone language as most of the Bantu languages, not only utilizes basic intonation contours (as for example English where a final rise in the contour may indicate a question and a final drop a statement), but also makes use of distinctive variations in pitch levels, while length phenomena also play a significant role. Consider the following examples:

usaphila [úsápʰi:là] [  ]
"he is (living) well" S

usaphila [úsápʰi:là] [  ]
"you are (living) well" S

usaphila [úsápʰi:là] [  ]
"is he living well?" Q

usaphila [úsápʰi:là] [  ]
"are you (living) well?" Q

Where S = statement and Q = question

The point to be made is that, while on the one hand music is being used in a specific manner so as to enhance reception and long-term memory, it may at the same time be distorting the natural and even essential suprasegmental qualities of the language which may be necessary for correct reception. When we say that we are using Concert One, *inter alia*, "to familiarize listeners with pronunciation rules", and that during the actual presentation we endeavour to articulate every word "clear-cut and phonetically well-moulded", we are in fact only addressing a part of the issue—in any case as far as tone languages are concerned. Furthermore, owing to the phonetic structure of Xhosa, and owing to the fact that the organs of speech are tensed during articulation, this language is relatively "loud" in nature (as are most of the other Bantu languages). Presentations of Xhosa material in a subdued tone and with predominantly soft music may also do injustice to this idiosyncracy of the language.

It seems to be quite clear that some kind of compromise is necessary; although, it is not yet clear what the nature of this compromise should be. Well defined experimental phonetic investigations could perhaps shed some light on this issue.

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PER LINGUAM VOL 1 NO 1 1985

# Suggestopedic texts for foreign language teaching: some literary and didactic considerations

Rainer Kussler and Ruth Bodenstein

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In this article, the basic principles of Lozanov's Suggestopedia are interpreted in terms of Watzlawick et al (1980) as an orchestrated attempt to further "analogic" communication. Many suggestopedic texts are, however, based on concepts of language and language didactics which do not facilitate analogic communication. The article examines some fundamental literary and didactic criteria which should be applied to a text so that it lends itself to analogic communication, i.e. proper suggestopedic presentation and activation, and at the same time conforms to present day standards of language didactics.

Die basiese beginsels van Lozanov se Suggestopedagogiek word hier vertolk in terme van 'n georkestreerde poging om "analogiese" kommunikasie te bevorder (Watzlawick et al 1980). Baie van die bestaande suggestopediese tekste is egter gebaseer op taalkonsepte en taaldidaktiek wat nie bevorderlik is vir analogiese kommunikasie nie. Met hierdie artikel word fundamentele literêre en didaktiese maatstawe ondersoek wat aangelê behoort te word om te verseker dat 'n teks homself leen tot analogiese kommunikasie: Behoorlike suggestopediese aanbieding en aktivering moet moontlik wees terwyl die teks steeds voldoen aan huidige standaarde ten opsigte van taaldidaktiek.

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## Basic considerations

Suggestopedia, as we understand it, is basically an attempt at perfecting communication in the teaching process. We can best explain this by referring briefly to some of the premises of the model of human communication of Watzlawick et al (1980; also Watzlawick 1978).

Incidentally, we are choosing Watzlawick's model firstly because he is a European working in the United States; and it seems to us that a combination of American pragmatics and European theory could greatly enhance Suggestopedia. Our second reason for choosing Watzlawick is that, like Lozanov, he is a psychiatrist. To us this indicates that they both must have started off from a common scientific basis and that Lozanov's model of teaching and Watzlawick's theory of communication should, therefore, be compatible. This is an important consideration because Lozanov's writings have been severely criticized (Mans 1981; Scovel 1979), and hence we feel compelled to discuss the principles of Suggestopedia within the framework of a scientifically viable theory.

Watzlawick's central premise is that one cannot not communicate. Whenever there are two persons who are both able to function normally as sender as well as recipient, it is impossible for either of them to behave in any way which does not convey something to the other. Consequently, all behaviour is communicative.

Watzlawick argues that this is so because communication always takes place on two levels at the same time. The first of these levels he calls digital communication; on this level, information is transferred via language digits with fixed meanings. The second level he calls analogic communication; and on this level, information on how to understand the digital information is transferred. Here, the volume and tone of voice, facial expression, body language of a sender as well as aspects of the situation and environment in which the communication takes place—to name just a few basic factors—serve as indicators as to how a verbal message is to be interpreted by the recipient. For example, one cannot understand a spoken sentence like "I really enjoy this!" as an ironic statement without drawing on this analogic mode of communication. (The distinction between "verbal" and "non-verbal" communication is far less precise than Watzlawick's terminology.)

Lozanov's Suggestopedia is based on this realization. It regards the teacher and the teaching environment as of the utmost importance for a successful teaching process and endeavours to integrate every facet of the teacher's behaviour and the teaching environment into the communicative process which takes place in the classroom. All the supposedly mysterious aspects of Suggestopedia—from background music to relaxation exercises and guided imageries—can be understood as facets of an orchestrated attempt to further analogic communication.

It is in this respect that Suggestopedia differs from traditional methods of teaching which tend to stress the digital mode of communication. In other words: Suggestopedia differs from those methods not so much in *what* is communicated, but in *how* this is done. Consequently, the phenomenal success which, according to the claims of its representatives, can be achieved through Suggestopedia, must, in our view, primarily be ascribed to optimized classroom communication.

According to our personal experiences as learners and teachers in suggestopedic languages courses and trainees in suggestopedic teacher training workshops, there can be no doubt as to the highly positive effects of suggestopedic techniques on the general classroom atmosphere and the attitudes of the learners towards each other, the teacher and the subject matter. For us, it has been and continues to be a pleasure to learn and teach within a suggestopedic environment. Therefore, we do not question *how* subject matter is taught through Suggestopedia. What we do question, though, is the quality of *what* is taught, of the subject matter itself: the suggestopedic text.

Let us consider briefly the role of the text. All language courses make use of texts. A foreign language course normally starts off with secondary or didactic texts, i.e. material which has been specifically written for the course, and will then gradually proceed to primary or authentic texts. There are, however, courses which use either mode of text throughout. So do suggestopedic language courses, which are based on a secondary text in the form of a drama script. This text is mainly used for the introduction and presentation of the language material to be mastered by the students; but it also serves as a starting point for the activation of this material. The presentation of the text and the activation of the language material it contains are the two basic steps in suggestopedic language teaching. They should be performed in such a way as to make the best possible use of positive suggestion or, in Watzlawick's terminology, of the analogic mode of communication. It stands to reason that the text *per se* must lend itself to such a performance.

A thorough investigation of various suggestopedic texts for foreign language teaching has shown that quite a number of them are based on concepts of language, grammar and language didactics which we regard as rather old-fashioned, to put it mildly. Sometimes these concepts even seem to contradict the basis of Suggestology, e.g. certain types of grammar tables which resemble those in the Latin primers which we had to use many years ago in school and which we find blatantly anti-suggestive. If these concepts could be updated, it should be possible to bring the digital level of communication in Suggestopedic language teaching more in line with the analogic level, which could boost the method considerably.

For the purpose of this paper we shall distinguish between the suggestopedic text and what should be done with it in the classroom. What we want to examine is some of the basic criteria which should be applied to a text so that it lends itself to suggestopedic presentation and activation and at the same time conforms to present day standards of language didactics. Firstly, then, we shall elaborate on the principles of Suggestopedia in so far as they constitute the text, and secondly we shall dwell upon what considerations should go into a suggestopedic text from the point of view of foreign language didactics. Thus, we shall look at the suggestopedic text from two different angles: firstly from the point of an author creating a literary text, secondly from the point of a teacher preparing didactic material. We would like to stress that, in the actual writing of a text, these two perspectives must, of course, go hand in hand. We are separating them here for methodological reasons only.

## Suggestopedic elements of the text

Suggestopedic courses are organized entirely around their texts. This requires special texts, written by authors who not only know what subject matter is to be taught, but who are also familiar with the principles of Suggestopedia. Throughout the writing of a suggestopedic text the author will have to consider the fundamental goal of Suggestopedia: to generate a learning environment in which all elements are harmonized optimally to create an experience of wholeness and integrity. This has two important implications for the text:

*Firstly*: The principles of Suggestopedia must be incorporated into the text in a holistic sense: They should feature as internal elements of the text, they should constitute and determine its plot, its message and its style. This means that the positive aims which a course sets out to achieve, both academically and psychologically, should be suggested by and articulated in the text verbally, albeit not explicitly. Thus the suggestopedic text should enhance the general atmosphere of relaxation, happiness and lack of anxiety in class. It should help the teacher establish and maintain authority and double-plane congruency, while at the same time facilitating the students' growth in self-esteem and in the realization of their own potential.

*Secondly*: The incorporation of the text into the broader framework of classroom-activities must also be done in a holistic sense. Authors of suggestopedic texts should understand and bear in mind the special function of the text in the suggestopedic cycle. The text must specifically comply with requirements pertaining to the following areas:

### *The concert session*

It is essential that the foreign text, which is introduced to the students via the first and second concerts, should have a literary quality which corresponds to the aesthetic and ritualistic significance of the concert session. The announcement of a concert session creates keen anticipation amongst students, and this valuable potential should be utilized to full capacity. The text, which is then presented, can make a deep impression in a literary sense, provided that it appeals to the students.

### *Activations*

New speech-acts, structures and vocabulary are most naturally activated via the text. This has two obvious advantages:

– The unity of classroom-procedures can be easily maintained if activities are extracted directly from this one source, and

– if the text appeals to the students one can assume that they would like to be able to simulate what is taking place in the story. This can result in a high motivation to acquire the communication skills needed to master speech-acts in the target-language. (Teachers incorporating NLP [in the way SALT does] will require from the text suitable descriptive passages from which to depart on sensory suggestive guided fantasies [some of which might, to the creative teacher, suggest themes for the additional activation-technique of metaphor]).

### *Background-knowledge ("Landeskunde")*

In South Africa little is generally known about circumstances in German-speaking countries. Because of this, we are concentrating on inter-cultural communication in both German language and literature courses at Stellenbosch. It seems appropriate to do the same in a suggestopedic language-course. In fact, the atmosphere in a suggestopedic classroom and the possibilities of creative, spontaneous reaction to input seem extremely beneficial for meaningful inter-cultural considerations and activities.

If it is one's aim to compare a foreign culture with one's own, it follows that one has to get to know as much as possible about the foreign people and country. This consideration is important from an author's point of view. The text should contain enough information about the circumstances in the countries where the target language is spoken to facilitate substantial discussions on an inter-cultural level in class.

### *Homework*

Reading the text in the evening and in the morning is the student's main explicit continuing contact with the target-language outside the classroom. (This statement pertains to situations like the one at our own university: Where the students do not learn the target language in a country where it is generally used.) If this reading homework is to be suggestopedically viable, it will have to be something else than homework in the ordinary sense. It too will have to be fun. The text should therefore be interesting and appealing enough for the students to gain pleasure out of reading it.

Whether all these considerations can be taken account of within one single text will depend largely on the creative imagination and ingenuity of the author. We do, however, think that the theoretical considerations spelled out at the beginning of this paper can be very helpful in establishing guidelines on how to write successful suggestopedic texts.

According to the model used, the text has to provide the linguistic basis, the digital substance, to be completed and complemented by the simultaneous non-verbal, analogic communication. A good text must therefore provide a good contextual basis for the great possibilities of suggestopedic activation-techniques.

In the specific case of a text for a foreign language course (in our case a beginners' course in German) the text must provide two essential elements: It has to facilitate identification, while at the same time it has to remain exotic enough to maintain sufficient curiosity and interest. For our purposes, the text must therefore contain and balance both components: Familiarity with phenomena (which will lead to identification) as well as a certain strangeness, a sense of the unknown (which will create interest and curiosity). We want to emphasize that both elements are equally important. (Foreign language courses have thus far dominated the suggestopedic teaching scene and continue doing so.)

The mere fact that a student has enrolled for a course in a foreign language suggests some interest for a country and people unknown to him or her, an interest for the exotic. This potential should be nourished and realized. The students should feel throughout the course that they are continually finding out things about another people and another country which they never realized and which are very interesting. (To be interesting, these things may, paradoxically, not be entirely exotic: A foreign phenomenon has to strike at least some known chord in the observer to trigger off a real interest, as purely exotic things can have no more than a superficial appeal.)

How, then, does one combine these two components? We have found that the best way to do this is by assigning the components to different structural elements in the text itself. What we have tried is the following: The familiarity which is to facilitate identification, is carried mainly by the characters and the plot, while the unfamiliar, the exotic, features in the milieu, the geographical and social context in which the action takes place. This constitutes a simple scheme:

*Identification*
**Characters and plot**
Emphasis on re-enactment
Students can recognize familiar elements
easily and frequently.

*Curiosity, interest*
**Geographical and social milieu**
Emphasis on the unfamiliar, the exotic
Students are led to questions, speculations,
comparisons with their own cultural context.

When writing our text, we concluded that the best blending would be a general, "universal", human situation in an unmistakably German context. The "universally human" situation *par excellence* seemed to be two young people of opposite sex meeting, getting to know each other, experiencing things together, becoming better and better acquainted and falling in love... This proved a popular but dangerous plot. Popular because our students are predominantly between eighteen and nineteen years old and very much pre-occupied with the theme of falling in love, and dangerous because a simple love-story might put sophisticated readers right off the text and even the course altogether if it seems too banal or kitschig.

We would like to embroider on this last consideration: Traditional language-teaching has, in our opinion, one great draw-back in that the beginner's linguistic limitations are usually linked with and maybe reinforced by a corresponding limitation in the intellectual content of the study-material and presentation. Suggestopedia seems, potentially, an adequate method to escape this pitfall.

Bearing this in mind, one cannot simply write a romantic love-story and hope that its emotional appeal alone may carry it through. We have, however, not abandoned the love-story-like plot for our text, but have tried to embed it properly: With enough authenticity to prevent the effect of Kitsch and enough intellectual substance to stimulate thought and discussion. The relationship between the male and female protagonists is therefore the Leitmotiv, but always accompanied by various other themes, e.g. the background and interests of the characters, activities alone or together, and, mainly, the steady narrative line.

Since the characters are the structural element which must primarily cater for identification, it follows that they have to be true-to-life. As Charles Schmid has repeatedly stated in his useful hints on text writing: One should, after some reading, start to feel that one almost knows the characters, that one would like to meet them in actual life (Lind 1982; Dhority 1984). In this sense they can become very attractive and effective "bait" for the acquisition of knowledge about the target-culture and its language.

In general we think one should bear in mind that character does not mean stereotype. This is especially important from a literary point of view. On no account may the didactic considerations interfere too strongly with the narrative and the psychological credibility of the story. This unfortunately does happen quite easily when one actually writes the text around grammatical units or clusters of vocabulary.

On this account we decided, when we were planning the story on broad lines, to move away from traditional grammar altogether. Instead, we chose a principle which seems more appropriate to Suggestopedia, namely linguistic progression according to true-to-life speech-acts. The list of speech-acts used is that contained in Neuner et al (1979), supplemented by Baldegger et al (1980).

This framework of speech-acts naturally became embroidered and expanded according to the flow of the story itself. The result is a text with narrative continuity which takes one through all these basic and many more speech-acts. It remains an easy task for the teacher to identify the speech-acts and to activate them in a suggestopedic sense according to whatever linguistic or grammatical intentions he or she has in mind.

### The communicative structure of the text

The general aim of our suggestopedic German course is to enable students to communicate with native speakers in everyday situations, i.e. to handle situations in which they are one of the partners in a dialogue. Consequently, the linguistic framework of a suggestopedic text through which this aim is to be realized, must be a dialogue. The following examples illustrate this principle.

This is the first page of our German text as it is used in class and as the students see it:

*Table 1*

**Eine Oper für die Tupari**
An Opera for the Tupari

| | |
|---|---|
| Erster Akt | First Act |
| 1. Szene | Scene 1 |
| **In einem Lufthansa-Jumbo, unterwegs von Rio de Janeiro nach Frankfurt. Durch das Fenster sieht man die Sonne: rosa und golden steht sie am Horizont.** | **In a Lufthansa-Jumbo, en route from Rio de Janeiro to Frankfurt. Through the window one can see the sun: Rosy and golden it stands on the horizon.** |

| | (Werner von Übermut hat lange aus dem Fenster geguckt. Plötzlich erkennt er das Buch, das seine Nachbarin liest.) | (Werner von Übermut has looked out of the window for a long time. Suddenly he recognizes the book which his neighbour is reading.) |
|---|---|---|
| *Werner*: | Entschuldigen Sie bitte, | Excuse me please, |
| | ich sehe, Sie lesen Hermann Hesse! | I see you are reading Hermann Hesse! |
| *Roswitha*: | Ja ... Ach, Sie sprechen auch | Yes ... Oh, you also speak |
| | deutsch? | German? |
| *Werner*: | Ja. Ich bin Deutscher. | Yes. I am a German. |
| | Aber ich lebe in Brasilien. | But I live in Brazil. |
| *Roswitha*: | Ach, Sie auch? Ich wohne | Oh, you too? Because I live |
| | nämlich in Belo Horizonte. | in Belo Horizonte. |
| *Werner*: | Das kenne ich. Dort leben | I know that place. Many Germans are living |
| | viele Deutsche. Übrigens, ich | there. By the way, my |
| | heiße Übermut. Werner von | name is Übermut. Werner von |
| | Übermut. | Übermut. |
| *Roswitha*: | (lächelt.) Übermut? | (smiles.) Übermut? |
| | Wirklich? | Really? |
| *Werner*: | Ja, ehrlich. (Er lacht auch.) | Yes, honestly. (He laughs too.) |
| | Und das stimmt auch: Ich bin oft | And that is quite correct: I am often |
| | ziemlich übermütig. Aber | rather bold. But |
| | nennen Sie mich doch bitte Werner. | do call me Werner, please. |
| *Roswitha*: | Gern. Und ich bin Roswitha. | Gladly. And I am Roswitha. |
| | Roswitha Singvogel. | Roswitha Singvogel. |
| *Werner*: | Wie hübsch! Trifft denn Ihr | How nice! Is your |
| | Name auch zu? | name appropriate, too? |
| *Roswitha*: | Ja schon. Ich singe sehr gern. | Well yes. I like to sing very much. |
| | Ich bin Musiklehrerin. | I am a music teacher. |

In the first place, the text must must contain the speech acts which constitute the communicative skills to be mastered by the students. Here, the speech acts from the first page of our text which are to be activated after the first concert session are emphasized; the right hand column shows the names of these speech acts underneath their English translations:

*Table 2*

**Eine Oper für die Tupari**

An Opera for the Tupari

| | Erster Akt<br>1. Szene | First Act<br>Scene 1 |
|---|---|---|
| *Werner*: | **Entschuldigen Sie bitte,** | Excuse me please, |
| | ich sehe, Sie lesen Hermann Hesse! | INTERRUPT, START CONVERSATION |
| *Roswitha*: | Ja ... Ach, Sie sprechen auch | |
| | deutsch? | |
| *Werner*: | Ja. **Ich bin Deutscher**. | Yes. I am German. |
| | | STATE NATIONALITY |
| | Aber **ich lebe in Brasilien**. | But I live in Brazil. |
| | | STATE PLACE OF RESIDENCE |
| *Roswitha*: | Ach Sie auch? **Ich wohne** | Because I live in Belo Horizonte. |
| | nämlich **in Belo Horizonte**. | STATE PLACE OF RESIDENCE |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Werner*: | Das kenne ich. Dort leben viele Deutsche. Übrigens, **ich heisse Übermut. Werner von** Übermut. | My name is Übermut ...<br>INTRODUCE YOURSELF |
| *Roswitha*: | (lächelt.) Übermut? Wirklich? | |
| *Werner*: | Ja, ehrlich. (Er lacht auch.) Und das stimmt auch: Ich bin oft ziemlich übermütig. Aber nennen Sie mich doch bitte Werner. | |
| *Roswitha*: | Gern. Und **ich bin Roswitha**. Roswitha Singvogel. | I am Roswitha.<br>INTRODUCE YOURSELF |
| *Werner*: | Wie hübsch! Trifft denn Ihr Name auch zu? | |
| *Roswitha*: | Ja schon. Ich singe sehr gern. **Ich bin Musiklehrerin**. | I am a music teacher.<br>STATE OCCUPATION |

These speech acts normally consist of a general phrase on the one hand and specific information on the other. If these specifics are taken out of the text—and the text is an adequately built dialogue—what remains is a framework which can be filled with new specifics to create new dialogues.

The following text illustrates this principle, the left hand column presenting the new dialogue (new specifics emphasized), the right hand column showing the original specifics:

*Table 3*

| | |
|---|---|
| Entschuldigen Sie bitte, | |
| ich sehe, Sie lesen **Thomas Mann**! | Hermann Hesse! |
| Ja ... | |
| Ach, Sie sprechen **auch deutsch**? | auch deutsch? |
| Ja. Ich bin **Schweizer**. | Deutscher. |
| Ich lebe in **Australien**. | Brasilien. |
| Ach, Sie **ebenfalls**? | auch? |
| Ich wohne **in Adelaide**. | in Belo Horizonte. |
| **Die Stadt** kenne ich. | Das |
| Übrigens ... Ich heiße **Sturm**. | Übermut. |
| Wirklich? | |
| Ja, **ernsthaft**. | ehrlich. |
| Ich bin oft **stürmisch**. | übermütig. |
| Aber nennen Sie mich doch bitte **Adelbert**. | Werner. |
| **Gut**. | Gern. |
| Und ich bin **Heiderose**. | Roswitha. |
| Wie **treffend**! | hübsch! |
| Ich **wandere** sehr gern. | singe |
| Ich bin **Botanikerin**. | Musiklehrerin. |
| Was Sie nicht sagen! | |
| Ich liebe **Blumen**. | Musik. |
| Und für **Thomas Mann** schwärme ich auch. | Hermann Hesse |

This is an English translation of the new text (new specifics emphasized):

*Table 4*

*He*: Excuse me please,
I see, you are reading **Thomas Mann**!
*She*: Yes, ...
Oh, you speak German, too?
*He*: Yes. I am **Swiss**.
But I live in **Australia**.
*She*: Ah, you **also**?
I live in **Adelaide**.
*He*: I know that **town**.
By the way, my name is **Storm**.
*She*: Really?
*He*: Yes, **seriously**. I am often **stormy**.
But please: Do call me **Adelbert**.
*She*: Gladly. And I am **Heiderose**.
*He*: How **appropriate**!
*She*: I like to **wander** very much.
I am a **Botanist**.
*He*: You don't say!
*She*: I love **flowers**. And I also adore **Thomas Mann**.

In a next stage, structures chosen at random from the text can be put together and filled with new specifics to form new dialogues. These new dialogues can be recorded and played back to the students who should have no difficulty at all in understanding them. This experience is a powerful suggestion regarding their learning ability and progress.

Here is an example of what such a completely new text might look like (most of the new words are cognates):

*Table 5*

**Im Museum**

*Sie*: Entschuldigen Sie bitte, ich sehe, Sie interessieren
sich für Picasso?
*Er*: Ja, ich liebe seine Kunst. Kennen Sie ihn gut?
*Sie*: Ja, schon. Ich bin oft in Kunstausstellungen.
*Er*: Wie finden Sie dieses Bild?
*Sie* Ach, ich weiß nicht recht. Die Farben sind mir
außerordentlich sympatisch. Aber ich verstehe
es eigentlich gar nicht.
*Er*: Ich auch nicht.
*Sie*: Wirklich?
*Er*: Ja, ehrlich. Ich meine es ganz ernst. Ich schwärme
für Picasso, aber dieses Bild...! Ich weiß nicht
recht. Übrigens, ich heisse Capone. Al Capone.
*Sie*: Angenehm! Und mein Name ist Sommer. Elke Sommer.
*Er*: Wahrhaftig! Was Sie nicht sagen!

*Sie*: Da staunen Sie, nicht wahr! Aber ich bin nicht *die*
Elke Sommer, wissen Sie. Leider nicht.
Moment mal! Al Capone—den Namen kenne ich doch!
Ach! Was Sie nicht sagen! Al Capone! Wahrhaftig!
*Er*: Da staunen Sie jetzt, nicht wahr! Ich meine es aber
nicht ernst. Ich habe nämlich einen ganz langweiligen
Namen: Erich Braun. Aber ich liebe exotische Namen.
Also nenne ich mich Al Capone. Ich schwärme für
Gangsterhelden, wissen Sie. Nennen Sie mich doch bitte Al.
*Sie*: Selbstverständlich! Nichts tue ich lieber!
Phantastisch! Al Capone und Elke Sommer ...!
Na, ich bin ja gespannt ...

Translated into English, this text would read like this:

*Table 6*

**In a museum**

*She*: Excuse me please, I see you are interested in Picasso?
*He*: Yes, I love his art. Do you know him well?
*She*: Well, yes. I am often at art exhibitions.
*He*: How do you like this painting?
*She*: Oh, I am not so sure. I like the colours very much.
But I do not really understand it.
*He*: Neither do I.
*She*: Really?
*He*: Yes, honestly. I'm quite serious. I adore Picasso, but this painting ...! I
really don't know. By the way, my name is Capone. Al Capone.
*She*: How do you do! And my name is Sommer. Elke Sommer.
*He*: Honestly! You don't say!
*She*: That surprises you, doesn't it! But I am not *that* Elke Sommer, you know.
Unfortunately not. Just a moment! Al Capone—don't I know that name?
Oh! You don't say! Al Capone! Really!
*He*: Now you're surprised too, aren't you! But of course, I'm not serious. I have
a very boring name: Erich Braun. But I love exotic names. So I call my-
self Al Capone. I am crazy about gangster heroes, you know. Please call
me Al.
*She*: Of course! There's nothing that I'd rather do! Fantastic! Al Capone and
Elke Sommer! Now, where is that going to lead up to...?

When the students, in careful didactic progression, are led to discover this underlying system, they learn the *principle of communicative creativity*, an aim which we regard as truly appropriate to suggestopedic language teaching.

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> *Words and deeds are quite indifferent modes of the divine energy. Words are also actions, and actions are a kind of words.*
> *– Ralph Waldo Emerson*

> *Speech is human, silence is divine, yet also brutish and dead: therefore we must learn both arts.*
> *– Thomas Carlyle*

# Improving emotive communication: verbal, prosodic and kinesic conflict-avoidance techniques

Horst Arndt and Richard W. Janney

Industrial language programme developers who wish to improve emotive communication and reduce supervisor-worker conflicts can profit from recent research by interactional psychologists, social psychologists and investigators of nonverbal communication. Three emotive aspects of speech are central to conflict-avoidance: levels of assertiveness, interpersonal involvement and emotional intensity. In face-to-face speech these are signalled by various verbal, vocal and kinesic activities. Conflict-avoidance is largely a matter of impression management. A supervisor who wishes to avoid unnecessary conflicts actively maintains a supportive communicative environment. When delivering positive messages he is assertive, interpersonally involved, and more emotional than usual. When delivering negative messages he is relatively nonassertive, impersonal and unemotional. Multimodal techniques for avoiding conflicts in various industrial settings are discussed in the paper.

Die samestellers van industriële taalprogramme wat daarna mik om emotiewe kommunikasie te verbeter en om opsiener/werker-konflik te verminder, sal baat vind by resente navorsing deur interaksie-psigoloë, sosiale psigoloë en ondersoekers na nie-verbale kommunikasie. Drie emotiewe aspekte van spraak staan sentraal in die vermyding van konflik: vlakke van selfgelding, interpersoonlike betrokkenheid en emosionele intensiteit. In gesprekke van aangesig tot aangesig word hierdie aspekte oorgedra deur verskeie verbale, vokale en kinestetiese aktiwiteite. Om konflik te vermy hang in 'n groot mate saam met die skep van 'n positiewe indruk. 'n Opsiener wat graag onnodige konflik wil vermy, skep op aktiewe wyse 'n ondersteunende kommunikatiewe omgewing. Wanneer hy positiewe boodskappe oordra, doen hy dit met gesag, hy is interpersoonlik betrokke en meer emosioneel as gewoonlik. Met die oordra van negatiewe boodskappe is hy relatief onaanmatigend, onpersoonlik en onemosioneel. Multi-modale tegnieke vir die vermyding van konflik in verskeie industriële opsette word in hierdie artikel bespreek.

## Introduction

In a recent paper on industrial language training in South Africa, van der Vyver, Engelbrecht and Gxilishe (1983) point out the importance of effective communication at the supervisor-worker level. Ineffective communication here, they say, causes safety hazards, accidents, unnecessary delays, labour disputes, misunderstandings and resentment. In the following paper we focus on the problem of reducing supervisor-worker conflicts. We restrict our discussion to a relatively small part of a very large and important aspect of speech: *emotive communication*, or the communication of momentary attitudes, feelings and other affective states. This, we believe, is a domain of primary relevance for reducing supervisor-worker conflicts, and research in this domain has important implications for the development of industrial language training programmes in South Africa.

We single out emotive communication here as a key to reducing conflicts because it has received considerable attention by social psychologists and investigators of face-to-face communication, and because it can be approached more systematically from our point of view than some other subjects. Being non-South Africans, we lack experience in the ethnolinguistics, socio-cultural, political and other practical problems of language training in South Africa. Ultimately, research in these areas must be conducted by qualified, multi-lingual South African research teams with the necessary insight, experience and sensitivity to the complexity of the issues involved (Gxilishe and Janney 1980).

Studies of face-to-face speech show that emotive communication involves a variety of verbal, prosodic and kinesic activities (Arndt and Janney 1983; 1984a; Arndt, Janney and Pesch 1984). Research during the past few decades suggests the interpretation of spoken utterances depends to a large extent on accompanying nonverbal displays: e.g. vocal gestures, facial expressions, gazing patterns and so on (Arndt, Janney and Pesch 1984). Nonverbal cues play an important role in establishing the emotive contexts in which utterances are interpreted. The basic emotive dimensions of speech have been given considerable attention by clinical and social psychologists (Plutchik and Kellerman 1980; Arndt and Janney 1984b). The interpretation of verbal, prosodic and kinesic emotive cues has been studied extensively by investigators of nonverbal communication (Key 1975; Arndt, Janney and Pesch 1984). It appears that emotive communication can be described systematically, and models of cross-modal emotive expression can be developed (Arndt and Janney 1985).

According to interactional psychologists, one of the keys to avoiding interpersonal conflicts is *supportive behaviour* (Berger and Calabrese 1975; Brown and Levinson 1978; Bradac, Bowers and Courtright 1980). Supportive behaviour reduces emotional uncertainty, one of the main causes of aggresiveness and anxiety (i.e. fight/flight reactions). In the following pages we suggest the possibility of teaching supervisors communicative techniques which can reduce workers' emotional insecurity. The basic idea is that there are supportive and nonsupportive ways of expressing positive and negative feelings. The effective supervisor generally attempts to minimize the worker's emotional uncertainty by being as supportive as the situation allows. The point is not to refrain from being critical or to abdicate authority by becoming the worker's friend, but to learn how to perform normal supervisional tasks (giving orders, instructions, explanations, evaluations, etc.) without causing unnecessary interpersonal friction.

**Basic issues in avoiding conflicts**

It is helpful to begin with an overview of the basic issues involved in avoiding interpersonal conflicts. In any human relationship, conflicts arise when one partner feels his personal needs are being ignored or actively opposed by the other. Two types of needs are especially important in everyday interaction: (1) the need for *autonomy* (i.e. the desire to be unimpeded, free, self-determining) and (2) the need for *acceptance* (i.e. the desire to be approved of, respected, appreciated). In interactional literature, these are viewed as complementary aspects of what Goffman (1967) and others call *face*, or the positive self-image that every person wishes to claim for himself (Brown and Levinson 1978). According to interactionalists, the desire to maintain face, and the fear of losing it, are human universals transcending all socio-cultural, ethnic, sexual, educational, economic, geographical and historical boundaries.

From a psychological point of view, these two needs are antithetical in certain respects. Personal autonomy is realized in social interaction often only at the price of lower interpersonal acceptance, and conversely, interpersonal acceptance is often purchased only at the price of lower personal autonomy. As a result, the desire to be unimpeded by others and the desire for approval often conflict, leading to what psychologists since Bateson et al (1956) refer to as *double bind situations*. The essence of a double bind situation is a contradiction between mutually exclusive alternatives which forces the individual into something like a position of psychological checkmate (Laing 1967). Double binds are difficult to endure; people tend to gravitate toward one alternative or the other, altering their behaviour accordingly on a situation-to-situation basis, sometimes creating the impression of *multiple personalities* (Osgood and Luria 1954; Thigpen and Cleckley 1957) or *multiple social roles* (Firth 1964:67).

From a socio-psychological perspective, it is nearly impossible to avoid double binds in everyday interaction. No matter how carefully one tries to avoid conflicts, every request, suggestion, directive or evaluation related to one's partner is a potential violation of the partner's personal territory and thus a potential threat to his positive self-image (Stiles 1978). Interpersonal conflicts are thus nascent in almost all communicative situations. Normal speakers are intuitively aware of this, and more or less subconsciously adopt speech strategies aimed at minimizing potential threats to their partner's face.

Much of what we call politeness is simply face-saving work (Arndt and Janney 1985). Speakers commonly smile when saying negative things to avoid threatening their partner's need for acceptance, e.g.

(1) Why aren't you working (smiling)

They become more indirect when making certain requests or commands to signal respect for their partner's autonomy, e.g.

(2) Mary, have you got a minute

They adopt less assertive intonations to soften the forcefulness of directives, e.g.

(3) Don't come ` ´late, Robert

These and other techniques enable speakers to impose on others without threatening their "face". Generally, speakers who wish to avoid conflicts try to minimize personal territorial transgressions (i.e. grant others as much autonomy as the situation allows) and maximize signs of interpersonal acceptance. In other words, they project a definition of the situation in which the partner is not forced to choose between mutually exclusive behavioural options such as agree/disagree, attack/defend, or obey/disobey.

This suggests an important potential conflict in all supervisor-worker relationships. Industrial situations are inherently double bind situations for both parties. The supervisor, due to his power over the workers and his responsibility for getting the job done, represents a more or less ongoing constraint on his workers' autonomy and is thus a threat to this aspect of their face. Every order impinges on the workers' freedom in some way. The workers, by the same token, because they may either co-operate with the supervisor or work covertly against him, also represent a potential threat to the supervisor's face. For this reason, the supervisor-worker relationship is always ambivalent to some extent, and needs continuously to be ratified and renegotiated in response to potential face threats and the emotional double binds caused by these (Berger and Calabrese 1975; Berger 1979). How the supervisor handles his workers interpersonally thus becomes very important. Both his success in getting the immediate job performed and his success in supervising subsequent jobs depend on how he handles his workers on a case-to-case, moment-to-moment basis. In countries such as South Africa, where supervisors and workers often share no native language or culture, interpersonal problems of this sort may become endemic, and the difficulties resulting from these, manifold. Linguistic and intercultural misunderstandings (Arndt and Janney 1984b) may further limit the supervisor's alternatives for avoiding conflicts.

In order to suggest practical solutions to these problems, it is necessary to introduce a few more basic ideas about interpersonal communication, and to discuss how these might be integrated into present industrial language training programmes with a view towards conflict-avoidance. In the remaining sections we sketch out a minimal framework for such an attempt. It is rooted in our research and reflections on face-to-face speech during the past eight years; parts of it are adapted from a book-length manuscript entitled *Inter-Grammar: theory, research and data for a multimodal model of verbal, prosodic and kinesic choices in speech* which is currently nearing completion in Cologne.

## Impression management

We may assume that a supervisor's communicative intentions in everyday practice can be reduced to a relatively restricted list of basic requests, orders, instructions, evaluative comments and so on, which recur regularly due to the nature of the tasks he supervises (Arndt and Janney 1981; 1983;

Janney 1983). Some such assumption is implicit in all functionally-oriented industrial language training programmes; in South Africa, for instance, it is one of the assumptions behind Engelbrecht and Gxilishe's (1983) *Xhosa for Industry*, to which we shall return later. In addition, we may assume the supervisor—at least in his own native language, when talking to members of his own culture—is intuitively able to express any of these intentions in various ways. How he expresses these depends on one of two cognitive-emotive factors: (1) how he actually feels at the moment (i.e. his actual affective state), or (2) how he wants his partner to believe he feels at the moment (i.e. a projected affective state).

The communication of both actual and projected affective states is important in everyday interaction, the latter especially, for this is what enables people to avoid direct confrontations. A certain degree of emotive projecting, or what we might call *impression management* (Patterson 1983:111-12), is absolutely necessary for smooth interaction. For instance, saying "yes" (verbally) and implying "no" (vocally, kinesically) is a standard means of avoiding hurting people's feelings. There is nothing hypocritical about it; it is merely one of the communicative techniques learned by all normal native speakers which enables them to interact with other members of their culture without getting into unnecessary emotional difficulties. It is a technique similar to formulating commands (come here) as neutral questions (have you got a minute), as in example (2) above; the difference is that it is a *multimodal technique* in which nonverbal cues contradict or modify verbal cues (Arndt, Janney and Pesch 1984).

Impression management, we shall say, is the verbal, vocal and/or kinesic projection of a certain definition of the situation for the listener's benefit. There seems to be an unspoken agreement among speakers that one is held interpersonally responsible only for what one "intends" to say, and in cases where *what* literally is said is contradicted by *how* it is said, one is generally allowed to act as if the latter were unintentional. Informal agreements of this sort reduce double binds and protect people from face threats. They do not interfere with communication. In normal intracultural situations, the addressee of the verbal "yes" and nonverbal "no" understands the answer is negative, just as the addressee of the command phrased as a question recognizes the utterance is a directive. The important difference is that the messages, thus formulated, are not interpersonally threatening. This notion has important applications in industrial relations and it could be incorporated into present language training programmes with little difficulty. The point would be to provide employees with a basic stock of emotive communicative strategies for reaching different goals in different situations with a minimum of interpersonal friction.

**Assertiveness, interpersonal involvement, and emotional intensity**

Three aspects of speech are central to conflict-avoidance: levels of (1) *assertiveness*, (2) *interpersonal involvement*, and (3) *emotional intensity* (Arndt and Janney 1985). In everyday practice these are complexly interrelated; we distinguish between them here purely conceptually, for purposes of discussing conflict-avoidance techniques. Every comment made by a supervisor to a worker is characterized by combinations of these, and how the supervisor modulates assertiveness, interpersonal involvement and emotional intensity when he speaks is important to impression management. Some of the verbal, vocal and kinesic characteristics of these are summarized below (for a more comprehensive discussion see Arndt, Janney and Pesch 1984; Arndt and Janney 1985; verbal tokens in English and Xhosa are from Engelbrecht and Gxilishe 1983).

***Assertiveness***

High levels of assertiveness are characterized by verbal directness and by references to the speaker in the subject position; there is a tendency to rely on falling pitch contours. Kinesically, assertiveness is often signalled by a full gaze or by higher than usual eye contact, e.g.

I don't `like that
(4) (full gaze)
Ndikuthiyile ...

Lower levels of assertiveness are characterized by less verbal directness and by more emphasis on the listener; there is a tendency to shift to a rising or falling-rising intonation in English, and of eye contact lower, e.g.

(5) Can you ` ´come (averted gaze)
Ungafika ...

Assertiveness may be understood here in the sense of self-confidence or self assertiveness (Russell 1978). The more assertively a supervisor expresses himself, the fewer alternatives he leaves for the worker to respond. Levels of assertiveness are important in the negotiation of personal autonomy.

### *Interpersonal involvement*

High levels of interpersonal involvement are characterized by first person references to the listener, or by inclusive references to the speaker and listener, and by increased facial gesturing, e.g.

(6) Tolo, we've received an `order (smiling)
Tolo sifumene iodolo

or

(7) Tolo, what shall we `do (frowning)
Tolo siza kwenza ntoni

Lower levels of interpersonal involvement are characterized by the omission of references to the speaker and listener, and by reduced facial activity, e.g.

(8) What `happened (unsmiling)
Bekutheni

or

(9) Why is there still `grease here (unsmiling)
Kutheni kusekho igrisi ...

The more positive interpersonal involvement the supervisor signals to the worker, the greater the compensation for impositions on the worker's personal autonomy. This is why signals of interpersonal involvement are important in preserving workers' face and avoiding conflicts.

### *Emotional intensity*

High levels of emotional intensity are characterized by emotionally-laden language, extreme pitch nucleus prominence, and noticeable increases of body tension, e.g.

(10) Damn it! I don't `*want* that (tense)
Nx! Andiyifuni loo nto

Lower levels of emotional intensity are characterized by more emotionally neutral language, normal pitch nucleus prominence, and a relaxed body posture, e.g.

(11) Some of you came `late this week. All those who came on time will receive a `bonus. All those who came late will `not. (relaxed)
Abanye benu bafike emva kwexesha kule veki. Bonke abafike ngexesha baza kufumana ibhonasi. Bonke abafike emva kwexesha abazi kuyifumana.

Emotional intensity, whether positive or negative, amplifies signals of self-assertiveness and/or interpersonal involvement. For this reason it also figures importantly in conflict-avoidance.

### *A schema of emotive cues*

These characteristics of assertiveness, interpersonal involvement and emotional intensity are represented in Table 1 on page 26. The table suggests a few dimensions of emotive communication relevant to the present discussion. Obviously there are more, but we restrict ourselves to these for the sake of simplicity. In the following section we turn to the notion of supportiveness, illustrating the interaction between verbal, vocal and kinesic emotive cues in different positive and negative industrial speaking situations.

|  | Verbal | Prosodic | Kinesic |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Assertiveness** |  |  |  |
| High | highly explicit<br>"I" oriented | falling intonation | high eye contact |
| Low | less explicit<br>"you" oriented | rising or falling-rising intonation | low eye contact |
| **Interpersonal involvement** |  |  |  |
| High | first-person references to listener,<br>"we" oriented |  | increased facial gesturing (e.g. smiling/frowning) |
| Low | no personal references |  | little or no facial gesturing |
| **Emotional intensity** |  |  |  |
| High | emphatically value-laden language | high pitch nucleus prominence | increased physical tension |
| Low | emotionally neutral language | normal pitch nucleus prominence | little or no physical tension |

Table 1: Verbal, prosodic and kinesic emotive cues

**The dynamics of positive and negative messages**

Earlier we suggested a key to avoiding interpersonal conflicts is supportiveness, the protection of one's partner's face. In the industrial connection, a supportive supervisor smooths over uncomfortable situations, or keeps delicate situations from becoming interpersonally threatening, by acknowledging the worker's intrinsic worth as a person. He does this by verbally, prosodically and kinesically confirming the worker's claim to a positive self-image.

Recent work by interactional psychologists and others provides some insight into the communicative techniques by which this is done (Berger and Calabrese 1975; Brown and Levinson 1978; Stiles 1978; Berger 1979; Bradac, Bowers and Courtright 1979, 1980). The basic notion is that speakers' strategies for avoiding conflicts vary depending on whether their messages are presumed to have positive or negative implications for their partners. According to Bradac, Bowers and Courtright (1980), *positive messages* have to be formulated assertively and accompanied by nonverbal displays of assertiveness, interpersonal involvement and a certain degree of emotional involvement in order to avoid creating the impression that they are not positive enough (i.e. covert threats to face). Conversely, *negative messages* have to be formulated nonassertively and accompanied by nonverbal displays of nonassertiveness, interpersonal uninvolvement and emotional uninvolvement in order to avoid creating the impression that they are too negative (i.e. overt threats to face).

This notion has some potentially interesting applications in industrial situations, where it is relatively easy to differentiate among messages which may be presumed to have positive implications for workers (e.g. compliment, appreciation, apology, permission, gratitude, agreement) and messages which may be presumed to have negative implications (e.g. criticism, reprimand, command, refusal, disagreement). The idea would be to give supervisors a simple framework of strategies for effective emotive communication somewhat like Table 2, together with the appropriate utterances and nonverbal cues for putting these into practice in the target language.

| Implication of the message for worker | Supervisor's strategies | Emotive goals | Appropriate techniques |
|---|---|---|---|
| positive | interpersonalize | associate worker positively with self and topic | refer to worker by name, and to self<br>smile |
| | be assertive | associate self with topic | be explicit<br>use falling intonation<br>maintain high eye contact |
| | emotionalize | associate feelings with topic | use emphatically positive-laden language<br>use more vocal stress than usual |
| negative | impersonalize | dissociate worker from self and topic | avoid referring directly to self or worker<br>avoid a negative facial expression |
| | be nonassertive | dissociate self from topic | avoid bluntness<br>use rising or falling-rising intonation<br>avoid unusually high eye contact |
| | de-emotionalize | dissociate strong feelings from topic | avoid strongly value-laden language<br>use normal vocal stress<br>remain relaxed |

Table 2: Techniques for communicating positive and negative messages

With a minimal framework such as this, language programme developers in South Africa and elsewhere might begin the important task of discovering the appropriate techniques for avoiding conflicts in the languages they wish to teach. Research on emotive communication among speakers of Xhosa, Zulu, Sotho and other native South African languages would probably lead to changes in the last column of Table 2, which is based on what we know about English emotive communication. It is not yet clear in how far assumptions about conflict-avoidance among members of Western cultures may be applied to non-Western or mixed cultural situations (Gxilishe and Janney 1980). Nevertheless, the framework itself, and the interactional psychological principles upon which it is based, retain their validity and may be used to systematize the search for intercultural conflict-avoidance techniques. Once these are discovered it should prove relatively easy to integrate them into industrial language training programmes. In the following section we suggest how conflict-avoidance techniques could complement a training programme such as Engelbrecht and Gxilishe's (1983) introductory Xhosa course. Our examples are English; corresponding Xhosa techniques remain to be discovered.

**Industrial conflict-avoidance techniques**

Before beginning, it is necessary to point out two features of industrial situations which may restrict a supervisor's ability to avoid conflicts in everyday practice. The first, which is a feature of mixed cultural interaction generally (Arndt and Janney 1984b), has already been mentioned, namely, the lack of a common native language. A supervisor and worker who share a common native language have more linguistic techniques available for avoiding conflicts than do speakers of different native languages. Among native speakers, potential confrontations are often avoided by *verbal indirectness*. A supervisor giving an order, for instance, has a variety of alternatives, e.g.

(12) Sweep here

(13) Will you sweep this up, please

(14) Bob, suppose you could do something about this trash here

(15) Bob, it's awfully dirty here

The more directly he gives his order, the more commanding it is; the less directly he gives it, the more requestive it becomes (vocal and kinesic factors aside). If the supervisor wishes to avoid conflicts, he refrains from directly ordering the worker to sweep up; he formulates his directive more in the style of (14) or (15). In effect, the indirectness is an interpersonal gesture recognizing the worker's intelligence and granting him a sense of responsibility. Such commands, from a face-saving point of view, are easier for the worker to follow than (12), for they allow him to define the situation in a way which preserves his dignity. Where supervisors and workers do not share a common native language, this type of interpersonal gesture is often difficult to perform, or when performed, it may be interpreted differently than intended. The same is true of many vocal and kinesic signs of indirectness.

The second feature of industrial situations that sometimes restricts the use of conflict-avoidance techniques has been discussed by Goffman (1981) under the term *frame*. In some contexts, the supervisor and worker may simply have no time for face-saving or other interpersonal considerations. This is true where noise, for example, interferes with communication, e.g.

> the supervisor and worker are standing by a loud air hammer; the supervisor wants the worker to unload some bricks in a certain place and shouts

(16) `*Here* (pointing to the place)

or in emergency situations, e.g.

> the supervisor sees a crane operator about to lower a heavy steel beam into a hole where another worker is standing, and shouts the command

(17) `*Stop* (frowning) (tense)

or in certain repetitive situations where commands are a routine part of the task at hand, e.g.

> the supervisor has been calling for cement slabs all day, notices it is time for more slabs again, and calls to the worker responsible for bringing them
> (18) More `*slabs* (unsmiling)

For illustrative purposes, in the following pages we assume these restrictions on emotive communication do not play an important role in conflict-avoidance. We assume both parties have a degree of proficiency in the language and the nonverbal cues used to illustrate our points, and that the supervisor and worker are communicating outside the frames mentioned above.

A supervisor, we shall suggest, should have at least two types of alternatives for saying any of the routine things required in his everyday life with his workers: (1) what we have called *supportive alternatives*, which minimize intrusions into the workers' private territory, acknowledge their needs for autonomy and acceptance, and protect them from losing face, and (2) *nonsupportive alternatives* which do not do these things, for situations where it is important to assert authority, establish distance from the workers, or signal for whatever reason that the supervisor is not interested in being considerate. The former alternatives are important in avoiding conflicts, the latter, in maintaining discipline. Contrasts are kept as sharp as possible below to illustrate the differences between supportiveness and nonsupportiveness (for the discussion of "neutral" or "common core" utterances, see Arndt and Janney 1981a, 1983).

### *Requests for information*

In everyday nonintimate speech, the person who requests information is at an interpersonal disadvantage; he wants something (the information) from his partner, and because the partner may or may not give this to him, he tends to formulate his request multimodally in such a way as to minimize the intrusion and maximise friendly relations. For an industrial supervisor, however, the dynamics of simple requests are somewhat different. Due to his power over the worker he has little reason to suspect he will not receive the desired information, and thus he is often little motivated to show conventional consideration for his partner's face needs. From a worker's perspective, there is little functional difference between a supervisor's requests and commands; nevertheless, a request formulated supportively, e.g.

(20) Tolo, do you know what `happened (normal gaze) (smiling) (relaxed)

has a different interpersonal impact than one formulated unsupportively, e.g.

(21) What `*happened* (full gaze) (frowning) (tense)

A supportive request for information recognizes the worker's need for acceptance and autonomy; it contains positive interpersonal involvement cues and is relatively nonassertive and de-emotionalized. It does not change the supervisor-worker relationship; rather, it defines the situation as an unthreatening one for the worker.

### *Commands*

The most usual way of issuing commands supportively is to formulate them as requests. The object of this communicative strategy in industrial settings is not to diminish the authority of the person making the command, but to signal acceptance of the person receiving it. As Hoover (1977) points out in his remarks on developing supportive climates, acceptance of the workers' attitudes without debate—which also implies taking their face needs seriously—is the essence of supportiveness. A supportive climate naturally leads to what he calls a *mutual-stake orientation* among subordinates (Hoover 1977:14). A supervisor concerned with developing such an interpersonal climate should thus use relatively nonassertive request forms for orders, e.g.

(22) Tolo, can you load these `boxes, please (normal gaze)

in place of assertive imperatives, e.g.

(23) Load these `boxes (full gaze)

Wherever possible, he should appeal to group solidarity, e.g.

(24) Now we've got to clean `up here, Tolo (smiling)

rather than appealing to his own authority, e.g.

(25) I want you to clean up here now (unsmiling)

When giving particularly unpopular commands, he should impersonalize and de-emotionalize them, e.g.

(26) All the cement slabs have to be carried over `there (normal gaze) (unsmiling) (relaxed)

rather than associating himself or the worker with them directly, e.g.

(27) You will carry all the cement slabs over `*there* (full gaze) (unsmiling) (tense)

The basic idea, from an impression management point of view, is to refrain wherever possible from defining negative situations for the worker in unavoidably negative terms.

### *Expressions of approval*

Earlier we pointed out that according to interactional studies (Bradac, Bowers and Courtright 1980), certain levels of involvement, assertiveness and emotionality are expected in conjunction with positive utterances; if these emotive cues are not present, or if they are not sufficiently emphatic, native speakers tend to interpret positive utterances as ironic, insincere or sarcastic (Arndt and Janney 1984a, 1985). It remains to be discovered in how far this notion is valid in interaction between speakers of different native languages. Nevertheless, a supervisor who wishes to avoid being misunderstood when expressing approval should interpersonalize, be assertive, and emotionalize the topic for the worker, e.g.

(28) Tolo, I'm ˋ*very* happy with your work (full gaze) (smiling)

rather than expressing approval aloofly, indirectly, or negatively, e.g.

(29) Your work isn't ˋbad (averted gaze) (unsmiling)

***Expressions of disapproval***

In conjunction with negative utterances, high levels of interpersonal involvement, assertiveness and emotionality should be avoided. All forms of emphatic behaviour in negative utterances are susceptible to aggressive or hostile interpretations (Arndt and Janney 1980). For this reason, a supervisor who wishes to avoid conflicts should formulate expressions of disapproval as impersonally, nonassertively and unemotionally as possible, e.g.

(30) This was supposed to be finished an hour ago, wasn't it (normal gaze) (smiling) (relaxed)

rather than expressing his disapproval emphatically or intimately, e.g.

(31) Damn it Tolo, why aren't you ˋ*finished* (full gaze) (frowning) (tense)

Again, a supportive supervisor has an active interest in preserving positive relations in his crew; a positive working climate is one where the workers do not feel threatened, and where their face needs are respected as much as the situation allows. There are obvious limits to supportiveness, just as there are obvious limits to nonsupportiveness. Ultimately, neither alone is sufficient for a productive supervisor-worker relationship; this is why we stress the importance of giving supervisors both types of communicative alternatives.

***Offers of help***

In everyday speech, the person who offers help or advice is at an interpersonal advantage; his partner needs something (help) from him. Conventionally, a speaker who wishes to offer assistance tends to formulate his offer in such a way as to minimize his partner's potential loss of face. This is done by defining the situation as unthreateningly as possible for the partner and by implying he may not need any help. In industrial situations, the fact that the supervisor normally decides who needs help makes his position as offerer somewhat different than that of the everyday speaker. The worker knows he has made a mistake when the supervisor wants to help him. For this reason, how the supervisor expresses this intention is important. He may define the situation as an unthreatening one, signalling his acceptance for the worker and being unassertive and unemotional, e.g.

(32) Tolo, should I show you how to ˋdo that (normal gaze) (smiling) (relaxed)

or he may define the situation as one where the worker has failed, signalling disdain and negative emotional involvement, e.g.

(33) You're doing that ˋ*wrong*, now ˋ*listen* to me (full gaze) (frowning) (tense)

Unthreatening strategies such as (32) help avoid conflicts; emotionally-laden strategies such as (33) invite conflicts.

***Requests for comprehension***

A similar pattern applies to requests for comprehension, which also may be supportive or nonsupportive. A supportive supervisor will give the worker an opportunity to say he has not understood an instruction without having to feel embarrassed or apprehensive, e.g.

(34) Would you like me to explain that ˋagain, Tolo (normal gaze) (smiling)

A nonsupportive supervisor will tend more to formulate his request like a command, defining noncomprehension for the worker as an act of disobedience, e.g.

(35) Do you ˋunderstand (full gaze) (unsmiling)

In the latter case, the worker finds himself in a classical double bind situation if he has not understood: if he tells the truth he may expect an angry response from his supervisor; if he lies he may expect to make some mistake which will also elicit an angry response from his supervisor. Unavoidably threatening situations such as this create emotional insecurity and lead to conflicts.

### *Conversational openers*

The dynamics of help situations apply to almost all situations where the supervisor is in a position to co-operate or not to co-operate with a worker's wishes. One of these is where the supervisor is approached by a worker who wants to talk with him. A supportive supervisor will not put the worker's wish to talk in question, or threaten him in any way for wishing to talk. The supervisor will signal his readiness to get into a conversation by showing positive interpersonal involvement; he will be relatively unassertive and unemotional, e.g.

(36) `Yes, Tolo (normal gaze) (smiling) (relaxed)

A nonsupportive supervisor will put the worker's wish to talk in question from the outset, signalling his disinterest or dislike by assertive negative interpersonal cues, e.g.

(37) What do `*you* want (full gaze) (frowning) (tense)

### *Granting and refusing permission*

Techniques for granting and refusing permission tend to follow the approval/disapproval pattern (see 6.3 and 6.4). A supportive supervisor will signal active readiness to comply with the worker's request, e.g.

(38) Of `course you can go, Tolo (full gaze) (smiling)

A nonsupportive supervisor will signal interpersonal indifference, or formulate his permission as a command, implicitly separating the worker from the request, e.g.

(39) `Go (averted gaze) (unsmiling)

When refusing permission, a supportive supervisor will either compensate for his refusal by showing positive involvement with the worker, e.g.

(40) ' `Sorry, Tolo, but I need you `here (full gaze) (smiling)

or he will appeal to solidarity and imply he and the worker are powerless in the situation, e.g.

(41) We all have to stay here until the `orders are filled (normal gaze) (relaxed)

A nonsupportive supervisor will neither show involvement nor offer any reason for refusing permission, implicitly treating the worker like a nonentity, e.g.

(42) `No (averted gaze) (unsmiling) (relaxed)

## Conclusion

Hopefully, with these few examples we have made our point. Linguists interested in developing effective industrial language training programmes in South Africa and elsewhere can profit from work on face-to-face communication in such neighbouring disciplines as interactional psychology, social psychology and nonverbal communication research. With a relatively restricted list of emotive communicative cues, and a modest conceptual framework such as the one presented here, it is possible to approach conflict-avoidance systematically from a communications point of view. The approach lends itself well to functionally-oriented language training programmes, especially to those where role-taking and pattern drills are emphasized, as in Engelbrecht and Gxilishe's (1983) *Xhosa for Industry*. Conflict-avoidance techniques can be built into such courses with little difficulty, and the rewards in terms of improved emotive communication between supervisors and workers are potentially immediate.

Naturally we have suggested only theoretical solutions to the emotive communication problems discussed at the beginning of the paper (van der Vyver, Engelbrecht and Gxilishe 1983), or perhaps more accurately, only the preliminary thinking necessary for suggesting such solutions. This is usually the case when investigators of human communication try to deal with real human communication problems. Neither we nor the language programme developer who integrates the notions discussed here into an industrial language course may assume that this in itself will reduce supervisor-worker conflicts. As Key (1975), one of the pioneers in American nonverbal communication research, said more than a decade ago, most intercultural communication problems are not due to lack of understanding, but to lack of tolerance.

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> *The distance is nothing; it is only the first step which counts. (Remark on the legend that St Denis, carrying his head in his hands, walked two leagues.)*
>
> *– Marquise du Deffand*

PER LINGUAM VOL. 1 NO. 1 1985

# Computers in the writing process—advantage or disadvantage?

Jannie Botha

This paper tries to find an answer to the question of whether the microcomputer could be put to meaningful use in the teaching of writing techniques to students. Attention is drawn to the fact that microcomputers are text orientated and as such, suitable for writing. Various reasons for this phenomenon are put forward. Microcomputers as well as programmes have become consumer friendly in recent times. This enhances the usefulness of the micro for the teaching of writing. At present, different writing projects are being carried out in the USA. Although scientifically founded results are as yet not readily available, there are indications that students react favourably to this new method of writing instruction. Various writing instructors have warned against the dangers of taking the new approach by storm. In this paper their misgivings are discussed.

Hierdie artikel bespreek die vraag of mikrorekenaars sinvol gebruik kan word vir die onderrig van skryftegnieke aan studente. Daar word gewys op die feit dat mikrorekenaars teksgeoriënteerd is en dus geskik is vir skryfwerk. Verskeie redes word hiervoor aangegee. Mikrorekenaars sowel as programme het gebruikersvriendelik geword in die jongste tyd. Dit verhoog die bruikbaarheid van die mikro vir skryfonderrig. Verskeie skryfprojekte is tans in die VSA aan die gang. Alhoewel wetenskaplik gefundeerde resultate nog nie geredelik beskikbaar is nie, dui gegewens daarop dat studente positief reageer op hierdie nuwe metode van skryfonderrig. Daar is verskeie skryfinstrukteurs wat waarsku teen die gevare van instorm in die nuwe benadering in. Hulle waarskuwings word voorts aan die orde gestel.

Microcomputers can be used to teach students to write better. The advantages of such an approach outweigh the disadvantages.

Microcomputers are text-orientated at present, and it seems as if this will not change in the immediate future. Only recently have we seen the introduction of optical devices that can read a page of text and input it into a computer. The basis of this process is still inputting text through a computer keyboard. A computer without a keyboard will not be regarded as a true computer. Writing, or typing, is very much the scene when we think about inputting information into a microcomputer.

There is also another reason why microcomputers will remain text-orientated for some time to come. Software development supports this notion to its fullest extent. Think for a moment how many different word processing programmes are available for only one brand of microcomputer. If you take into account all the enhancements which are added to these programmes on a monthly basis, you can see what important role text input plays in information processing through a microcomputer.

Because microcomputers are inclined to accept text input, we should explore possibilities to let students use them to improve their written assignments.

There is still another reason for bringing students to computers or vice versa. There are many programmes available that can help students in all the stages of preparing a paper, i.e. prewriting, writing, and revision. *Prewriting* should be regarded as the most creative part of the entire writing process. But this is the part that students tend to neglect. (According to Marcus 85% of a student's time should be spent on prewriting, 1% on writing, and 14% on revising.) In this stage they need to define their audience, find a clear statement of purpose, organize their ideas, and select information. A programme such as *Writing is Thinking* (Kapstrom Inc., Dallas, Texas—for IBM PC) is a good example of how students could be prompted to find answers to very important questions during the prewriting session. This programme, by the way, also deals with the other stages in the writing process.

The *writing* stage is the one which traditionally has received the most attention from student writers. This is the stage where they limit themselves by starting with an introduction, and working through to the conclusion. This strategy often causes a problem: Once a student has started in this manner, he may end up facing the so-called writer's block, and he does not know how to escape it. He is not able to make logical transitions between his ideas. He may also be unable to review his own sentences. Apart from *Writing is Thinking*, which could help in this area, there are also programmes such as *Format* and *Editor* (Drexell University, Philadelphia, PA.—for IBM PC).

In the *revising* stage students should not only look at the physical lay-out of a paper but also at the composition itself. The so-called proofreading can to a large extent be handled by spelling and style checking programmes. Examples of the latter are *RightWriter* (DecisionWare Software Inc.—for IBM PC) and *Author's Analyst* (MDS Software—for IBM PC). A program like *Writing is Thinking* will ask very direct questions at this stage. If a student is willing to answer them in all honesty the final version of his paper will benefit from it. It is estimated that 80% of students prefer to do their own typing. This leads them to let their concern for neatness overshadow the awkward phrases and illogical thought patterns in their papers.

Microcomputers and programmes have become easy to use. The term "user-friendly" is used almost exclusively to indicate the ease of use in the case of microcomputers and software. It is even more relevant in the case of software used in the writing or composing process. No student would want to spend hours learning a software package just to find that he cannot use it without effort. We therefore find that when a word processing programme is evaluated, user-friendliness is almost every time one of the aspects which is emphasized.

Apart from word processing programmes, there are also other writer's aids that are becoming more readily available. We refer here to style analysers, spelling checkers, and composing programmes. The latter are often designed to be used without the intervention of an instructor. However, many writing instructors would prefer programmes which include a role for the instructor. An example of the latter type is *Writing is Thinking*. This programme has some limitations in terms of paragraph construction and overall length of a paper, but can be put to good use in a writing laboratory situation.

Microcomputers as well as software are becoming more affordable. It is no wonder that students tend to acquire their own facilities. With the scene set like this, educators should not hesitate to take advantage of it. Students' writing can be improved by creating the necessary facilities, and by encouraging and guiding them to use these facilities.

In the USA there are several microcomputer-based writing projects in progress at the moment, e.g. Colorado State University, Drexell University, and the Navy Programmes. So far scientifically based results are scarce. Nevertheless, computers have helped to improve students' writing according to Arms (1983). Students become enthusiastic about their written assignments, and their attitudes improve. The interaction which stems from some writing software encourages them to continue working. Furthermore they feel more confident because of the aids at their disposal. They feel they can use this new tool or aid even after the instructor has gone. They are not exclusively dependent on their instructors for producing a well organized paper. Furthermore students find they are using their time more efficiently. Not only do they find typing a faster method of making their thoughts visible, they are also impressed by the editing facilities available in writing laboratories, as well as with the software. Arms (1983) is convinced that the thinking process as well as the mechanics of producing a report are greatly enhanced by these new aids that have become available to students and writing instructors.

There are also other advantages in the use of computers in the writing process as pointed out by *Southwell (1983)*. Computers provide a support system because they are usually available at times and places where teachers are not. The interactive nature of some programmes ensure that students are constantly involved. Students also like to use computers for their studies because they like the idea of working in private. This attitude is enhanced by the game-like nature of some programmes. A good example of this type of programme is *Grammar Examiner* (DesignWare Inc. —for IBM PC and other computers) which teaches a student to correct grammar in passages in a newspaper setting.

The successful implementation of computer-based writing activities depend, according to Shostak (1983), mainly on three factors: how creative the programmes are in solving students' problems; how successful teacher training programmes are; and how convincing programme developers are in demonstrating that computer-assisted instruction is part of the teaching of writing.

Before educators or institutions rush into computer-assisted writing instruction, they would benefit from looking at some warnings and cautions from people who have walked this road before. Elias (1985) suggests that educators should ask some very critical questions. They should ask what exactly they want the computer to do in a writing programme. They should also determine how a computer will fit into their approach to teaching writing. Many instructors are also asking today whether the writing programmes that are available are really worthwhile—are they not just the "electronic versions of our worst selves"? (Elias 1985:2).

Elias also points out some very good reasons for this predicament in which teachers find themselves. The microcomputers which can be used to run writing programmes are severely limited in memory and other facilities. Secondly, writing instructors who ask programmers to help them design such programmes, do not know enough about computers. The result is that they do not know how to describe their aims to programmers so that the latter can make sense out of it. Further, writing instructors can very often not define exactly what qualities they are looking for in students' writing in terms a project programmer can understand.

Looking to the future, Elias sees a boom in CAI of all sorts, but essentially in writing instruction. There are various reasons for this optimism. One of the most important is an expected reconceptualization of the computer as a teaching tool. In this way some of the dangers listed above can be avoided. If we also bear in mind that artificial intelligence is only now breaking into the area of computer-assisted instruction, then text analysis should also be entering a new and exciting phase.

There are also direct problems for the user of a computer for writing. The most obvious disadvantage may be a lack of access. For students who are wholly conditioned to writing on computers, writing in any other way may be frustrating. If students become used to this facility, and then suddenly find that there are not enough facilities, it may lead to a decrease in motivation. Another disadvantage for some people is the limitations imposed by the computer screen. Some people find it very difficult to maintain an overview of a document when they see only 24 lines at a time.

Apart from limited access and screen size, writing on computers may also tempt students into making smoke-screen revisions (Gallagher 1985). They may concentrate so much on the nice appearance of a paper that they tend to neglect revising the logic and general composition of the paper. A third problem pointed out by Gallagher is that students tend to write almost too easily, too unreflectively when they use computers for this task. It is interesting to note that computer anxiety, according to Gallagher, is limited almost exclusively to staff members!

The software that is available for the purpose of writing on a microcomputer can be divided into three categories: *word processing* programmes; *composing aids*; and *after-composing aids*.

Most users of microcomputers will be familiar with one or more word processing packages. Some of the best-known ones are *Wordstar*, *Microsoft Word*, *WordPerfect*, and *Bank Street Writer*. Word processing programmes consist of a range of editing features which allow a user to manipulate text. The degree of sophistication may differ from one programme to another. A word processing programme which may be of special interest to academic users is *Nota Bene* (Dragonfly Software Inc.—for IBM PC). This programme is strongly recommended by the Modern Language Association. Among its most outstanding features is an MLA style sheet which allows for automatic formatting of bibliographies and references according to the MLA standards.

*Composing aids* are now becoming more freely available. These programmes usually guide a writer through the various stages of composing. Examples of such programmes are: *Writing is Thinking* (used for composing this paper—the inadequacies which remain are those of the writer and not of this programme), *Framework* (Ashton Tate Software Inc.—for IBM PC), and *Think Tank* (Living Videotext Inc.—for IBM PC). All these programmes allow a writer to compose a paper step by step. Prompting to some degree is a prominent feature of these programmes.

*After-composing aids* are used by writers to check style and spelling. These are programmes that help to put the finishing touches to papers. Examples are: *Writer's Workbench* (Bell Laboratories—available on VAX computer), *RightWriter*, *Wandah* (to be published shortly—for IBM PC). *Writer's Workbench* was originally developed for technical writing, but has since been adapted for academic use by educationalists at Colorado State University. The main characteristics of this group are their ability to guide users in revising documents, check for style, punctuation and grammar errors, and help to produce a well-typed paper. It has to be pointed out, however, that these programmes tend to favour American English with regard to style, punctuation, grammar, and spelling. Some do allow for the expansion of a dictionary which makes it possible for users to insert their own vocabulary. It means that a user would want to check for this facility before deciding on a specific programme.

There is hardly any campus where microcomputers are not available. By making these facilities available to students when they first enter university—not only computer science students—they can learn to use them. Goal-orientated instruction will also contribute to this end.

If students become familiar with using computers for writing, they should be able to produce better written assignments. This will also contribute towards a more enriched academic study programme and possibly better grades. Initial results in current writing projects point in this direction.

By introducing students to computers for the purpose of writing, a university will ensure that its students are prepared for a vocational environment where computers will be part of their everyday lives.

Writing is not about to disappear from the earth. In fact, writing with computers is just entering our daily lives. Universities should not be the last to recognize this situation, and act accordingly.

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# New publications … Nuwe publikasies

## Reviews

**J. Charles Alderson & A.H. Urquhart** (eds.)
*Reading in a foreign language*. London: Longman, 1984.

This is the most recent volume in the new *Applied Linguistics and Language Study* series—a series aimed at the language teacher and student who wishes to keep abreast of theoretical and descriptive inter-disciplinary positions based on the latest research findings. The editors of the series are concerned to encourage an empirical state of mind.

The title of this volume is perhaps misleading, as the editors do not draw a distinction between second language and foreign language learning. The term "foreign" is used to describe reading in a language other than one's mother tongue, so the research discussed should be of direct interest to ESL teachers in South Africa. Indeed, much of the research reported is from studies of first language users, for the editors consider this important.

> We do not, and indeed find it difficult to, draw a clear distinction between first and foreign language reading—in fact, it is not clear to what extent reading in a foreign language is different from reading in a first language.

Reading is a complex activity and the editors were determined not to attempt an overview that might well have led to banality. They decided to limit their discussion to reading for the purpose of formal learning.

The introduction explores the question, "What is reading?" The discussion is based on Halliday's view that it is the meaning-making capacities of the language user which determine to what extent a text will have meaning. In that sense a text can never be said to have a precisely identifiable message.

In presenting their material, the editors practise what they preach. First, they provide sufficient background information to ensure that the relevant knowledge necessary for comprehension will be activated in our minds. The three key elements—the reader, the text and the interaction between text and reader (the writer is left out of account for the purposes of volume)—are carefully defined.

The papers themselves are carefully chosen for their focus on evidence rather than speculation, and are generally characterized by lucidity and the provision of specific detail. This makes it possible for teachers to do, as Christopher Candlin asks, and consider

> to what extent in their own reading teaching, and indeed, in their own reading experience, [the proffered] conclusions are warranted and [the suggested] changes in common and traditional pedagogy motivated.

A special feature of the book is that each paper is followed by a postscript written by the editors in which they critically review the most significant aspects raised, explore the pedagogical implications, and suggest lines of further research.

There are several significant implications for established teaching practice. The most important one is that reading manuals and exercises which emphasize convergence on "the right interpretation" fly in the face of evidence which increasingly establishes heterogeneity and divergence as characteristic of the reading process. Furthermore, there is little evidence for the separate existence of a hierarchy of subskills. Reading assignments, it seems, should involve varied reading activities, demanding and developing a variety of reading strategies.

A new role emerges for the teacher:

> If we are to focus on the learner-reader's attempts at meaning-making then teachers will necessarily become engaged in evaluating variable interpretations of the meanings to be made from texts. Furthermore, the link

> established by research between products of reading and readers' purposes suggests a teaching role of advising, guiding and ultimately evaluating readers' goals and routes, and, most difficult of all for a pedagogy accustomed to assessment against common yardsticks, the acceptance of a variety of provisional interpretations.

In sum, teaching reading becomes itself an investigation.

With this in view, Candlin addresses three additional questions to "teachers as experimenters". First, he asks whether the social conditions of production and interpretation of the texts should not be taken into account in monitoring and exploring the learner's personal process of reading. Second, he suggests further investigation into the finding that recall does not equal comprehension or understanding. Third, he suggests that more should be done to make readers' accounts of the reading process "as rich and as warranted as possible".

There have been few books which have so advanced our understanding of the reading process and of the strategies which are employed in it. Teachers will find it of immediate practical value. So will researchers. It truly opens up the subject.

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**Robert W. Blair** (Editor-contributor)

*Innovative approaches to language teaching*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1982. (Paperback, 257 pp.)

Robert Blair, an enthusiastic and experienced language teacher from Brigham Young University, introduces some of the more unconventional approaches to foreign and second language teaching in this book. The need to accelerate change in language teaching is evident and it also serves as an encouragement to experiment with these alternative approaches. Blair does not compare the various methods, but he rather allows the originators of the methods to do the introduction themselves through carefully selected articles and papers by these people.

In the introduction, Blair emphasizes the need to improve on conventional approaches, as they just do not produce results. In his own words: "... we are left with the challenge of finding more efficient training methods that will accomplish more in less time." Blair has arranged the various contributions in a very interesting way, viz Part 1: Background, Part 2: The evolution of the comprehension approach, Part 3: Approaches to a rich acquisition environment, Part 4: Approaches to rich learning environment, Part 5: An integrated approach.

In Part 1, Blair reviews his own search for better and more effective methods (1950-1981). This becomes a historical overview of L2/L3 teaching, leading up to the methods introduced in this book which he has used and tested. The second section of Part 1 is a paper delivered by Krashen at Brigham Young University in 1979 in which he discusses his nine hypotheses of second language acquisition. This most interesting and stimulating view of second language acquisition forms a crucial backdrop for the other contributions in the book. The notion that conscious learning and analysis of the structure of a language should be subordinate to a natural, communicative acquisition in a rich and varied environment where the learner is exposed to the whole language, forms an important principle for most of the methods.

In Part 2, Palmer, Nida, Asher, Postovsky and Burling advocate the importance of delayed speech production with beginners. The work of Postovsky is particularly convincing, as it is supported by empirical evidence which clearly indicates that beginners who first listen to comprehensible input for an extended period of time, perform much better than learners who immediately start with the production of speech.

Some of the most interesting work is introduced in Part 3 where the emphasis is on rich input and the total person involved in a "dynamic social matrix" (p. 102). Newmark, Stevick, Curran, Lozanov, Terrell and Galyean have this one principle in common. Newmark advocates natural language input to such an extent that he uses mother tongue speakers to teach the learners of the L2/L3. Stevick pleads for a learner-created curriculum which is in harmony with the learner's personality. Curran's Community Language Learning is both unique and brilliant in its simplicity and profound consideration for the dynamics of learning and for the learner-knower relation. Lozanov's Suggestopedia is arousing more and more interest all over the world, not only for the claims of extraordinary results, but especially for the qualitative results achieved. Lozanov outlines, in an abridged report to UNESCO, the main principles and means of Suggestology and Suggestopedia. Terrell's Natural Approach relies heavily on Krashen's hypotheses, and the method is considered to produce excellent results. Terrell proposes three guidelines: "(1) students should be permitted to use L1 (with L2) in the initial stages of learning to comprehend L2, (2) students' speech errors should not be corrected, and (3) class time should be devoted entirely to communication experiences, relegating learning activities to outside the classroom" (p. 171). The Confluent Design of Galyean has four key processes, viz language practice immersed in the "here and now"; content based upon student-offered material; close relationships established among class members; and self-reflection and self-disclosure as means of assisting the learner with self-knowledge.

In Part 4 the emphasis is on a rich learning environment and it addresses itself to the question of whether a rich and natural acquisition environment in a classroom is sufficient on its own to lead to communicative competence. Gattegno's Silent Way throws the learner upon himself and the learner learns through his mistakes. "... To require perfection at once is the great imperfection of most teaching and most thinking about teaching" (p. 194). Harvey's Communicational Approach through Games is a collection of activities toward the skilful playing of language games which can be part of a whole lesson, series of lessons, and even a whole course. Blair's Grammar Induction is based on the following principles: Grammar should not have a central place in the first 200 hours of language instruction and linguistic training should not be a prerequisite for language training. The formal study of language structure has value, but as an out-of-class study. In Easyfication, Blair describes some mnemonic techniques to assist in the acquisition of another language.

In Part 5, Blair describes his Integrated Approach which can be regarded as an eclectic approach drawing from the methods described in this book. Blair sees the integration of all these approaches as a viable proposition and apparently achieves considerable success with his Integrated Approach.

*Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching* fulfils a much-felt need, since it has brought together some of the latest approaches in the field of L2/L3 teaching in one book, thus providing one the opportunity to gain some knowledge of these approaches and to compare them cursorily. This book will most certainly encourage readers to read in more depth on each of the methods described in it.

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**J. Yalden**

*The communicative syllabus: evolution, design and implementation.* New York: Pergamon Press, 1983. (Paperback, 198 pp.)

The movement away from a structuralist approach in second language teaching to a communicative approach has gained ground rapidly in the past decade, also in South Africa. Inevitably the need has arisen for a new syllabus to accommodate these changes. A great deal has now been written about the advantages of adopting a functional-communicative approach, but many critics have expressed doubts about its successful implementation in the language classroom. Much of this criticism is the result of misinterpretation of the concept "communicative".

The author is the Director of the Centre for Applied Language Studies in Ottawa, Canada. In this volume, she presents a comprehensive description of the design of a communicative syllabus. The book is divided into two parts. Part 1 is entitled "The Background to Syllabus Design". In four chapters, Yalden outlines the changes in linguistic theory which have a particular relevance to the work of the applied linguist in his role as designer of language syllabuses. She then traces the evolution of syllabus design up to the emergence of the so-called "semantic syllabus". There follows an attempt to analyse the shift in North American language teaching theory from a formalist approach to one based on the question of *how* a learner acquires a second language. This leads naturally to the question *why* he acquires a second language, thus emphasizing the functions of language for man as a social being.

A discussion of the Notional-Functional syllabus follows. Distinctions are made between speech events (or speech situations) and speech acts (or language functions) which are, in turn, realized in linguistic forms. In discussing the principles and components of the Notional-Functional syllabus, Yalden makes the following point:

> ... there is no intention to exclude linguistic competence, in the sense of knowledge of grammatical structures and the ability to manipulate them, since without such competence there can be no communication (p. 68).

Part 2 is a treatment of the processes involved in the actual planning and development of a communicative syllabus. Emphasis throughout is on the preparation of language-teaching programmes and courses for adolescents and adults. A general description of the phases of language programme development follows. Six phases are identified: a needs survey; a description of the purpose of the programme; the selection and development of a syllabus type; the production of a proto-syllabus; the production of a pedagogical syllabus and the development and implementation of classroom procedures. Various approaches to tackling each of these phases are suggested and described. The question of evaluation of new and existing programmes is also raised.

In Chapter 6, an interesting and informative taxonomy of communicative syllabus types is presented, ranging from the structural-functional to the fully communicative syllabus. Chapter 7 is devoted to "The Proportional Approach", which advocates the principle of balance in syllabus design, i.e. balance between linguistic form and communicative function. A plea is made for an integrated approach, which, in the words of Widdowson, "is based on the recognition that acquisition and use are not distinct, but complementary and interdependent aspects of the same process" (p. 125). These considerations lead naturally to the question of methodology and the choice of teaching techniques. Unfortunately, the section on techniques is rather sketchy.

The final chapter deals with the proto-syllabus (i.e. the description of syllabus content) and the use of check-lists to specify this content. The discussion of a pedagogical syllabus includes an example of the form a basic unit could take in such a syllabus. Very useful and comprehensive check-lists of communicative needs and syllabus specifications (including language functions and discourse skills) are provided in the appendices.

In contemplating the implications of a communicative syllabus for classroom procedure, Yalden emphasizes the change in the role of the teacher—from an authority figure to that of a guide or facilitator. Second language teaching in its communicative guise is learner- rather than teacher-centred:

> The syllabus provided will depend for success on having teachers available who understand why the items in it have been selected, why a communicative methodology is essential, what this methodology consists of, and how to implement and encourage the communicative activities suggested (p. 152).

There has been considerable confusion over just what the functional-communicative syllabus represents. This volume does much to clarify the matter and to demonstrate how a communicative approach appropriate to a particular environment and to local conditions may be prepared. Although it does not quite meet the expectations created by the word *implementation* in the title, the book should prove invaluable to both the syllabus designer and the teacher of SL today.

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# Conferences, courses and meetings
# Konferensies, kursusse en byeenkomste

1986

**TESOL**

Place: Anaheim, California
Date: 3–8 March 1986
Contact: TESOL Central Office
201 D.C. Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington DC 20057
United States of America

**Twenty-first Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-cultural Communication)**

Place: Lisbon, Portugal
Date: 10–15 March 1986
Contact: A. Rocha Trindade
Instituto Português de Ensino à Distôncia
Rua da Escola Politécnica
147 Lisboa
Portugal

**Biannual Congress of the German Modern Language Association**

Place: Münster, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 24–26 March 1986
Contact: F.J. Zapp
Hedwigstrasse 4
D–8000 München 19
Bundesrepublik Deutschland

**American Society for Eighteenth Century Studies**

Place: Williamsburg, USA
Date: 27–30 March 1986
Contact: Richard Peterson
St Olaf College
Northfield, MN 55057
United States of America

**Twentieth International Conference of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language**

Place: Brighton, England
Date: 1–4 April 1986
Contact: IATEFL
3 Kingsdown Chambers
Kingsdown Park
Tankerton
Whitstable
Kent CT5 2DJ
England

**United States Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**

Place: Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Date: 3–5 April 1986
Contact: G.L. Ervin
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232 Cunz Hall
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**Society for Accelerative Learning and Teaching: Educational Visions and Applications**

Place: Fort Lauderdale, Florida
Date: 9–13 April 1986
Contact: Vanda Williamson
7115 Clarke Rd
West Palm Beach, Florida 33406
United States of America

**Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**

Place: Washington DC
Date: 17–20 April 1986
Contact: J. Dodge
P.O. Box 623
Middlebury, Vermont 05753
United States of America

**Third International Conference on Minority Languages**

Place: Galway, Ireland
Date: 21–26 June 1986
Contact: A. Ahlguist
Department of Old and Middle Irish
University College
Galway
Ireland

**International Conference – "To Educate the Human Potential"**

Place: Johannesburg, RSA
Date: July 1986 (3 days)
Contact: The Conference Secretariat
International Conference
"To Educate the Human Potential"
457 Sussex Avenue
Lynnwood
0081 Pretoria
Republic of South Africa

**Nineteenth Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-cultural Communication)**

Place: São Paulo, Brazil
Date: 22–27 July 1986
Contact: AIMAV
E. Rosseel
Av. 9 de Julho 3166
01406 São Paulo – SP
Brazil

**Twentieth Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-cultural Communication)**

Place: Rabat, Morocco
Date: t b a
Contact: A. Lahjomri
Mohamed V University
Rabat
Morocco

**Eighth World Congress of the International German Teachers' Association (IDV)**

Place: Berne, Switzerland
Date: 4–9 August 1986
Contact: Eurocentres
Seestrasse 247
CH – 8038 Zürich
Switzerland

**Sixth International Conference of Nordic and General Linguistics**

Place: Helsinki, Finland
Date: 18–22 August 1986
Contact: M. Tandefelt
Nordica
Helsingfors Universitet
Regeringsgatan 11
SF – 00100 Helsingfors 10
Finland

## 1987

### Twenty-first Annual Conference of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

Place: Hollywood, Florida
Date: 28 April–3 May 1987
Contact: TESOL Central Office
201 D.C. Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington DC 20057
United States of America

### Eighth World Congress of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA)

Place: Sydney, Australia
Date: 16–21 August 1987
Contact: Professor Dr J. Nivette
Vrije Universiteit
Pleinlaan 2
B–1050 Brussel
België

### Twenty-second Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-Cultural Communication)

Place: Brussels, Belgium
Date: t b a
Contact: S. Cornil
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B–9000 Gent
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### Sources of information

*FILPV World News*, No. 38(4) May 1985, Zurich

*SALT Newsletter* Vol. X(2) 1984, Iowa

> *Teleconferencing is so rational, it will never succeed.*
> *–John Naisbitt*

> *But in our new society, as Daniel Bell first pointed out, the* strategic *resource is information. Not the only resource, but the most important.*
> *–John Naisbitt*

# Voluntary contributions received
# Vrywillige bydraes ontvang

The Editorial Committee gratefully acknowledges the following contributions:

| | R |
|---|---|
| C.F. Babst, Oudtshoorn | 20,00 |
| H.L. Botha, Pinelands | 10,00 |
| C.M. du Plessis, Cape Town | 5,00 |
| P.M. Mullineux, York High School, George | 10,00 |
| Natalia Development Board, Durban | 500,00 |
| M. Sainsbury, Rhodes University, Grahamstown | 10,00 |
| Universitas, Pretoria | 6,50 |
| M.H.P. van Heusden, Newlands | 15,00 |
| H.S.J. van Rensburg, University of Stellenbosch | 20,00 |
| J.L. Vos, University of Zululand | 20,00 |

Die Redaksie erken met dank en waardering ontvangs van bogenoemde bydraes.

> *By discovering our potential as human beings we participate in the evolution of the human race. We develop the inner knowledge, the wisdom, perhaps, required to guide our exploration of technology.*
>
> *– John Naisbitt*

# Guidelines for contributors

1 The focus of the journal is on issues of language teaching, learning and acquisition, especially as related to communicative needs of multi-cultural, multi-lingual Southern Africa.

Authors are invited to submit contributions (only one original copy is required) on

- language acquisition and second or foreign language teaching and learning
- language courses for special or general purposes
- cross-cultural communication
- the effect of language teaching and learning on productivity and human relations
- technology in language teaching and learning
- innovative approaches to language teaching and learning, and
- training and in-service training programmes.

2 All contributions must be directed to

The Editor
PER LINGUAM
Institute for Language Teaching
University of Stellenbosch
7600 Stellenbosch
Republic of South Africa

3 Frequency of publication: once each semester.

4 Language of publication: English or Afrikaans.

5 Format of manuscripts for publication: Typewritten, double-spaced throughout, on one side of the paper, with two and a half centimetres of margin at the left. Footnotes should be avoided and essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped at the end of the article. References for an article should not be interspersed with notes. A standard format (Harvard method) for complete references is to be used.

6 Authors' full names and complete mailing addresses should appear on the first page of each article.

7 When an article is published by a group of authors under the name of an organization, the name and address of each author should be provided.

8 In cases where the author's surname might not be readily recognizable (e.g. if the conventions of a non-English language cause the author's surname to precede the first name), surnames should be clearly marked through the use of italics, capitalization, etc.

9 The inclusion of an English abstract for each article is required.

10 The deadline for submitting articles for the first semester edition is the 30th of September of the previous year; articles for the issue of the second semester must be received before 31st of March of the previous year.

11 Articles should, as a rule, not exceed 20 pages of A4-format paper. Longer contributions might be considered for special issues of PER LINGUAM.

12 Evaluation of articles is done by at least two specialist referees.

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When you cite your own previous publications, reference must be made to them in the *third* person: not "as I said in my article on Suggestopedia", but "as L. Botha said in his article on Suggestopedia". Upon acceptance of your manuscript, the editorial staff will convert the third person citations to the first person.

> *In the new information society, being without computer skills is like wandering around a collection the size of the Library of Congress with all the books arranged at random with no Dewey Decimal system, no card catalogue—and of course no friendly librarian to serve your information needs.*
>
> *– John Naisbitt*

> *By one estimate, 75 per cent of all jobs by 1985 will involve computers in some way—and people who don't know how to use them will be at a disadvantage.*
>
> *– John Naisbitt*

# Riglyne vir skrywers

1 Die tydskrif fokus op taalonderrig, taalaanleer en taalverwerwing, veral met betrekking tot die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van 'n veelvolkige, veeltalige Suidelike Afrika.

Skrywers word genooi om bydraes te lewer (slegs een oorspronklike kopie word vereis) oor

- taalverwerwing en die onderrig en aanleer van 'n tweede taal en van vreemde tale
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9 Artikels wat vir die eerste semester se uitgawe in aanmerking wil kom, moet voor 30 September van die vorige jaar ontvang word; artikels vir die tweede semester se uitgawe moet voor 31 Maart van die vorige jaar by die Redakteur wees.

10 As 'n reël moet artikels nie langer as 20 A4-bladsye wees nie. Langer bydraes kan vir spesiale uitgawes van PER LINGUAM oorweeg word.

11 Elke artikel word deur ten minste twee spesialiste gekeur.

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> *We must learn to balance the material wonders of technology with the spiritual demands of our human nature.*
>
> *– John Naisbitt*

> *The more high technology around us, the more the need for human touch.*
>
> *– John Naisbitt*

> *My God, what a fantastic time to be alive!*
>
> *– John Naisbitt*

# Why we try harder.

AVIS

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# PER LINGUAM

VOL 1 Nº 2 1985

## A Journal of Language Learning

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# PER LINGUAM

**Redaksie**

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PER LINGUAM (ISBN 0 7972 0054 1) verskyn twee maal per jaar—een elke semester—en word uitgegee deur die Instituut vir Taalonderrig, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Republiek van Suid-Afrika.

Die artikels in PER LINGUAM is onderworpe aan keuring. Manuskripte, boeke om geresenseer te word, en alle bydraes wat verband hou met die doel van die tydskrif, moet aan die Redakteur gestuur word.

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# Editorial

When looking at the articles in this issue, the reader, who might also be a potential contributor to PER LINGUAM, is reminded of the perspectives (aims) as outlined by van der Vyver and Proctor in the Editorial of Volume 1 number 1.

It was said, inter alia, that **the main concern and focal point of PER LINGUAM** would be **language communication in Southern Africa in an attempt to improve relations between, and the quality of life of, all its people**. Toward achieving this objective, the Editorial Committee would strive for co-operation between academics (from Southern Africa and abroad) of different political, religious and cultural backgrounds. In this co-operative effort, attention would be given to

- understanding the importance and nature of needs analyses arising from discourse analysis
- understanding the nature of language acquisition and learning
- understanding the principles of syllabus design
- the preparation and development of language teaching materials as well as the selection and application of instructional strategies
- setting objectives and evaluating progress in the classroom
- evaluating courseware and utilizing educational technology, especially in the application of television and computers
- research and activities concerning language communication in Southern Africa
- more effective training, in-service training sessions, workshops and seminars.

The Editorial Committee is grateful for the co-operation that has already been achieved and that (again) contributions from local and overseas specialists, ranging from views on psycholinguistic conditions for second language learning (Spolsky) to a plea for the teaching and learning of Arabic and Urdu in South Africa (Haq Nadvi) can be presented to the reader. They carry relevant and important insights.

Language teaching specialists in Southern Africa will also welcome the articles by Dhority, Bancroft, Blair and Jung, considering the growing awareness of and interest in Suggestopedia/SALT/holistic language teaching in this part of the African continent.

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# Some psycholinguistic conditions for second language learning

Bernard Spolsky

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The author discusses some psycholinguistic conditions for second language learning based on a preference model in linguistics. The outcome of second language learning depends on a number of conditions. Second language learning takes place in a social context, and social conditions determine a learner's attitudes. These attitudes are twofold in nature, namely those towards the community speaking the target language and those towards the learning situation. The two kinds of attitudes lead to motivation. The social context also provides opportunities for language learning and can be divided into formal and informal situations. There are also individual conditions of the learner. The author is concerned with the exploration of several specific psycholinguistic factors, as well as the kinds of rules which they contribute to the theory.

Die skrywer bespreek enkele psigolinguistiese voorwaardes vir die aanleer van 'n tweede taal, gebaseer op 'n voorkeurmodel in die linguistiek. Die aanleer van 'n tweede taal geskied binne 'n sosiale konteks, en sosiale omstandighede bepaal 'n leerder se houding. Hierdie houding kan bestaan ten opsigte van die gemeenskap wat die teikentaal praat, sowel as ten opsigte van die leersituasie. Motivering word bepaal deur hierdie tweeledige houding. Die sosiale konteks bepaal ook geleenthede vir die aanleer van 'n taal en kan verdeel word in formele en informele situasies. Verder is daar die individuele omstandighede van elke leerder. Die skrywer hou hom besig met 'n verkenning van spesifieke psigolinguistiese faktore, sowel as die soort reëls wat bydra tot die teorie.

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In this paper, I will discuss some psycholinguistic conditions for second language learning in terms of a theory of second language learning based on a preference model in linguistics (Jackendoff 1983). The general outline of the theory is as follows:

The achievement of the many possible outcomes in second language learning depends on meeting a number of conditions: Some are necessary, as without them learning is impossible; many are graded, in other words there is a relation between the extent to which the conditions are met and the outcome, and others are conditions that apply typically but not necessarily. Second language learning takes place in a social context, which constitutes the first set of conditions. Social conditions determine a learner's attitudes which are divisible, according to Gardner (1979), into those directed towards the community speaking the target language ("integrativeness") and into those directed towards the learning situation. The two kinds of attitudes, according to Gardner, lead to motivation. The social context also provides opportunities for language learning; these may be grouped roughly into formal and informal situations. There are also conditions individual to the learner: The language learner brings with him or her a number of capabilities and a body of previous knowledge and experience. Some of these are universal, such as an innate capability for deriving a grammar, an innate or learned ability to infer interpretation from speech acts, and presuppositions about the uses of language; while these are basic, they do not have a special capacity to explain variation in the outcomes. Others, linguistic or non-linguistic, are specific to the learner's own background. Of particular importance are previous knowledge (of the first or other languages), language learning aptitude and motivation. The combination of these learner factors accounts for the use the learner makes, consciously or unconsciously, of the socially provided formal or informal learning situations.

My concern in this paper will be to explore several specific psycholinguistic factors, and sketch the kinds of rules which they contribute to the theory.

### Human learner

I start with the absolute and necessary condition for second language learning, a human learner, and propose:

*Condition 1 (necessary)*: This theory of second language learning deals with the learning of a second or later language by a human being who has already learned a first language.

While this may at first glance seem trivial and obvious, it is in fact interpretable as an empirically verifiable claim of some theoretical importance. There are alternatives: One might want to set as a requirement for a theory of second language learning that it account for an animal learning to respond to human signals and to produce signals interpretable by human beings, or for the possibility of programming a computer to produce or accept a natural language.[1] Now, both these requirements are interesting, but in the first place they complicate the task. Secondly, the decision to make them requisite must depend on proof that they are generalizably similar to human second language learning. This evidence would only come from knowing more than we do about the physiological processes underlying human language use. For this reason, we will next consider the nature of the central physiological organ underlying language, the brain.

### The neurolinguistics of language learning

In an excellent recent introduction to the psycholinguistics of second language learning, Hatch describes the neurolinguistic basis of language as something still to be established: "Where messages go and what happens to them are two of our most intriguing unanswered questions" (1983:198). Obler (1983) suggests that our "rudimentary" knowledge is a result of limitations of methodology. The black box remains opaque, but there are a number of more or less informed and more or less plausible guesses about how it might work, and some more or less imaginative guesses about the implications of the first set of guesses for second language learning. Galloway (1981) summarizes research evidence on the neuropsychology of bilingualism and second language performance as follows. Advanced second language learners and bilinguals appear to be equally lateralized in each of their languages although some studies suggest that language in some bilinguals is more evenly divided between the hemispheres than in monolinguals and there are reported differences (in contradictory directions) according to age of learning. There are hypotheses, but no hard evidence of language-specific differences and ethnic differences. A group of papers at the 1981 TESOL Convention summarized research in the field of neurolinguistics and second language acquisition (Cohen 1982) and supports the conclusion that the body of hard data on the neurolinguistics of second language learning comes nowhere near matching the enormous amount of speculation.

Even though there is no hard evidence of the functioning of specific parts of the brain, a good deal has been inferred from behavioural changes. One critical question to be considered is the effect of brain damage on the ability to learn a second language. From data collected in monitoring the various immersion programmes for teaching French in Quebec, Genesee (1983) concludes that the extra language learning did not impose an educational disadvantage on low-IQ or learning-disabled children. Learning disability as defined in his studies, is not a block to learning a second language and functioning in it.

The difficulty of making hard claims results from the fact that when we are studying a person with some kind of brain damage, our evidence may just as well be that of a reorganized brain as of a brain with one functioning section. This point may be clearer if we consider other kinds of physiological defects and their effects on second language learning. Someone with a broken arm speaking a language that requires the use of frequent large nonverbal gestures clearly suffers from a "speech" impediment, but will usually be able to overcome that difficulty by modification of intonation and stress. A person temporarily prevented from speaking as a result of oral surgery will similarly use a combination of gestures and written messages. Someone who is partially deaf develops lip-reading skills. In all these cases, there has clearly been a reorganization of skills and the implementation of ways to replace the missing part. The same is probably true of many cases of brain impairment.

These arguments then militate against imposing necessary neurophysiological conditions on second language learning that are different from those we would impose on normal learning activities. The first necessary condition, viz that we are concerned with a "human being" does not need more precise categorization; we assume that "human being" is defined by the normal set of rules, with the normal necessary conditions (alive, conscious of the outside world, in control of some non-reflex responses) and the normal typical conditions (intact body, functioning sense organs). Just as not meeting a typical condition (the loss of a limb or the impairment of a sense organ) does not lead us to consider someone not human, so it does not rule out the possibility of second language learning.

### The argument from linguistic theory

There is an important argument for a biological basis for language learning in current linguistic theory. Chomsky has drawn attention to what he labels "Plato's problem", the fact that children show evidence of knowing things about language that they could not have gained from their outside experience; he therefore proposes that there are certain language properties inherent in the human mind. These form a Universal Grammar, not a set of particular rules but a set of general principles about the possible form of grammatical rules: a metagrammar, to be precise. These universal grammar rules include "parameters" which are specifically applied to the grammars of individual languages, they are present in the brain and develop as the child grows, given certain environmental "triggers" (Chomsky 1980:33).

The Universal Grammar may be present as a whole from the beginning and applied only as needed, or it may itself develop over time. This theory deals with linguistic or grammatical competence or knowledge of a language and not with what Chomsky calls pragmatic competence: The ability to place "language in the institutional setting of its use, relating intentions and purposes to the linguistic means at hand" (1980:225)[2]. Secondly, Chomsky (1982) makes clear that the principles of the Universal Grammar are more important than the rules: A grammar is the specification of the way in which parameters are set. Thirdly, there is a distinction between the "core" grammar set by the Universal Grammar and "peripheral" marked constructions that might have other sources (1980:8). In practice then, the child's experience applies parameters according to the basic principles of the Universal Grammar; while it "prefers" to apply these Universal Grammar principles, it may use other processes for a periphery of marked features. There is, however, no reason to assume that the core develops first; unmarked structures may emerge late, frequency may have an effect (Chomsky 1981:9). Hypothesis-testing may be an explanation, but it should be seen as choosing from a limited number of possibilities set by the Universal Grammar.

Applying this theory to second language learning, Cook (1984) proposes that the same argument holds: A second language learner shows evidence of knowing facts that he or she has not been taught. But there is a critical difference: The second language learner already has a grammar that itself has developed by applying the principles of the Universal Grammar available. The question which then arises is whether the learning of a second language can still involve fixing parameters in the Universal Grammar or whether, in accordance with the Critical Period Hypothesis proposed by Lenneberg (1967), the principles and parameters of the Universal Grammar are no longer accessible to the learner after a certain age.

Of the greatest importance for this argument is the postulation of a biologically inherent process, a language acquisition device, if we want to use the metaphor, related in complex ways to general cognition and expressible in terms of a Universal Grammar which consists of a set of principles and a set of parameters which apply to a specific language. It must be considered a necessary condition. If the theory is correct, the Universal Grammar is as much a part of a human being as is any other physiological organ; its absence leads to serious disablement.

**Condition 2 (necessary):** Any physiological or biological limitations that block the learning of a first language will similarly block the learning of a second language.

It is important to note that we are not talking about a graded or typical condition: There is no evidence to suggest, nor theories that argue, that some people are equipped with better Universal Grammars than others.[3]

## Age

Earlier I mentioned the claim that all or critical parts of second language learning are dependent on some innate preprogrammed mechanism, identical or similar to the Language Acquisition Device proposed for first language learning. A second claim is that this mechanism is differentially available, in relation to age (the Critical Period Hypothesis) or in relation to the nature of affect or input conditions (Krashen's hypotheses concerning the learning-acquisition distinction, the affective filter, and comprehensible input).

Like other questions in second language learning, the age issue is also a result of the blurring of boundaries: In a model looking only at informal second language learning and bilingualism, we naturally tend to assume that children learn languages better than adults; when we are studying what happens in our own foreign language classroom, we often believe that the best age for learning was the year before the students came to us; and the instrument by which we measure language proficiency usually determines who will have learned best in a comparative study. Educational systems usually first decide the optimal learning age on political or economic grounds and then seek educational justification for their decision. For these reasons, the research evidence on the question is far from clear or conclusive. But the theoretical importance of the issue is considerable. If differences between first and second language learning can be accounted for by age differences (as in the Critical Period Hypothesis), then we clearly have a biological basis for learning (a developmentally related biological innate programme). On the other hand, if Krashen is right about the differential availability of an acquisition processor at all ages, we have a ready explanation for both the comparative failure of most foreign language teaching methods (they deal only with the monitor, and so with low-level minimally useful rules) and for the large numbers of adults who cannot learn second languages, as they are restricted either developmentally or affectively to monitor learning.

If the process is biological, it should show changes with age: Either one should be unable to learn certain things before a certain age (as in Piagetian models) or one should lose the plasticity of childhood as an adult. Indeed, one of the major arguments for a biological basis for all language learning is that after puberty second language learning is not as completely successful as before it. Let us look at some of the evidence that can bear on this issue.

In a study of the age of learning, Fathman (1975) looked not just at overall performance but at the order of learning specific structures. She arrived at two interesting conclusions: First, that the age of learning did not seem to make any difference to the sequence of learning these items, and second, that age of learning made a difference in performance on phonology (where younger learners did better) and morphology (where there was an advantage for older learners). Felix (1981) studied young German children learning English in a "liberal audio-lingual" classroom, where most of the classroom activity was repetition, drill, and controlled question-answer dialogues. No spontaneous novel utterances were allowed, thus the classroom gave virtually no opportunity for natural speech, nor did these children have any exposure to English outside it. Nevertheless, in four structures studied, he found striking similarities between the utterances of tutored and naturalistic second and first language learners; he was ready to conclude that "at least some of the principles that govern naturalistic language acquisition also determine the processes by which students learn a foreign language under classroom conditions" (Felix 1981:108). Swain (1981) looked at the relative advantages of early and late starts to immersion programmes in Canada. Since Ervin-Tripp (1974) showed some of the ways in which older children learn certain aspects of language more efficiently than younger children, a good deal of evidence has evolved that being young has as little advantage in language learning as in many other aspects of life. Swain found that late immersion learners had many better results than early immersion learners. For school related learning, at least, and in the circumstances of French immersion programmes in Canada (Swain emphasizes the sociological context and the fact that it is the majority child learning a minority language), an earlier start has much less effect than might have been expected. Swain's study does not contradict the general agreement that there are certain aspects of second language learning, especially the more school-related tasks (and the areas that Krashen ascribes to the monitor), that older learners have more success with; nor does it contradict the general finding that the earlier one starts to learn a language, the more success one has in developing native-like pronunciation.

There is also evidence, summarized in Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) about the effects of starting to learn a second language while young. Studies of a group of Italian-born male immigrants who had been living in the USA for from five to eighteen years showed that the age of arrival had a major influence on the presence or absence of a noticeable accent. Age of arrival was also the main factor in accounting for accent, but when length of stay in the country was less than five years, it became significant. It should be noted that all these studies assume a minimum initial period (say five years) for someone who is young enough (under 9 to be fairly sure of success, under 15 to have a good chance of it) to acquire a native-like accent. And all these studies report the existence of a noticeable minority who are exceptions. This fact surely argues against any absolute biological basis, and leads us to assume a preference rule:

**Condition 2 (graded typical):** The younger one starts to learn a second language, the better chance one has to develop a native-like pronunciation.

It should be noted that the statement of this rule does not attempt to explain the phenomenon, viz whether it is a question of time, or plasticity of muscular co-ordination, or openness to new language ego. What is important at this stage is to see that we have found no support for a necessary condition even in the area of pronunciation. There is less evidence available on differences in grammar than on differences in phonology. Some grammatical tests seem to favour younger arrivals, but in school learning of testable morphology and syntax, there is evidence that older learners learn faster than younger (Swain 1981, Ervin-Tripp 1974).

Assuming that these age differences have been established, what are the possible explanations? There are essentially four to be considered: the biological, the cognitive developmental, the affective, and the environmental. We have already touched on the biological. Here, I will simply say that there does not seem to be much evidence for the suggestion that there is a critical period, associated with lateralization, and for the implication that language learning after lateralization is different, and no reason for setting it as a necessary condition.

When we turn to look at a cognitive developmental explanation, we can certainly assume that the kind of formal abstract task called for in much classroom teaching of foreign languages is likely to be more within the competence of the older child or adolescent. Swain in fact argues convincingly that much of the school training given in the native language is likely to be useful to the second language learner in developing related skills (Bialystok 1981).

**Condition 3 (graded typical):** The formal classroom learning of a second language is promoted by the development of the skills of abstraction and analysis.

The following affective hypothesis is formulated by Schumann (1975). Having reviewed the various studies concerning the importance of attitudes, motivation, and personality in second language learning and having noted the weakness in the neuropsychological arguments for a critical period, he proposes an affective explanation for children's superior success in certain aspects of language learning. Essentially, he follows Macnamara (1973) who argues that children learn better than adults because they try harder to communicate. He goes on to suggest that the reason adults often do not get involved in this "real communication", essential to learning, may be socialization; children are given greater opportunities to interact than are adults, and adults are more able and likely to find ways of avoiding interaction in the new language.

**Condition 4 (graded typical):** A child's greater openness to external influence favours the learning of a second language in informal situations.

The final argument, that children learn languages in environments different from those of adults, is clearly true. Schumann recognizes the differences in communicative needs that might result from these differing sociological conditions, although he prefers to relate them to the learner's attitudes.

**Condition 5 (graded typical):** The social situation faced by a child in a second language environment favours second language learning.

**Individual differences**

There is certainly a good deal of evidence that human beings vary considerably in the range of abilities that underlies the construct labelled intelligence. To what extent is intelligence, however defined, a necessary condition, a mark of humanness, and to what extent is it a graded condition relevant to second language learning? The answer to this has in part to do with the relation between general cognitive ability and specific language ability, which may be summed up in two claims:

a There is a language-specific ability or faculty, distinct from other cognitive abilities. The work of modern generative grammarians is based on this claim, and sets out to justify it by showing the existence of language-specific principles such as those we have been discussing under Universal Grammar.

b This language-specific ability must be consistent with other aspects of the cognitive system, because it interacts with and makes use of them. Jackendoff (1983) presents this claim first as the "Cognitive Constraint", viz there must be levels of mental representation at which information conveyed by language is compatible with information from other peripheral systems (1983:16). He suggests that one can in fact go further than to point out the need for interfaces between the various sensory modalities. He proposes in other words a strong form of Piagetian developmental theory, a hypothesis of the existence of a level of conceptual structures that are universal and innate but specifically developed by experience and at which linguistic, sensory, and motor information are compatible (1983:17).

Cook (1985) points out that there is no reason to suppose that the "mental faculty of language" depends, as Piaget would claim, on certain cognitive operations; he, however, misses Jackendoff's point when he says that there is no necessary connection between language and other faculties. But, Cook points out, there are other ways in which the language faculty and the other cognitive faculties are related. Just as language development is tied to physical development in specific ways, such as the influence of the development of the nervous system on phonology, so the use of certain language abilities depends on the availability and development of certain general, cognitive abilities. Cook mentions the example of the constraint of short term memory on sentence length. Jackendoff points out that the richness of semantic structure is dependent on conceptual richness, and so relates language to cognition.

We have here a clue to an important set of distinctions. In the conditions we have been considering so far, there is a basic necessary condition that must be met, a sort of core minimum. At the same time, there is clearly the possibility of stating a graded condition. Take language learning. It is generally accepted now that both innate and environmental conditions must be met: The grammarians have given us reason to believe in the necessity of the innate Universal Grammar, and they fully agree with others that there is need for exposure to the language.[4] Now it is clear that there is variation in the amount of exposure. Might not there also be variation in the quality of the innate component?

The argument is at first sight an appealing one. If all men are not created equal, we can more easily avoid responsibility for inequality. It is also a socially irresponsible theory that leads to racism and other forms of extreme discrimination against any persons considered innately inferior. There is, therefore, good moral reason for demanding particularly strong proof on biological grounds for differences between human beings.

If we apply this to language learning, we should first stress, therefore, the universality of the language faculty (and so by definition the language learning ability) in non-pathological human beings. As we can find no significant biological differences between first and second language learning (rejecting the Critical Period Hypothesis), we will not expect to find that differences in the *fact* of second language learning are biologically explainable. We still need to consider the possibility of biological influence on the *quality* or *quantity* of second language learning, and while it will be reasonable to hold that many of the differences in individual second language learning achievement will be accounted for by environmental and other factors, we still need to look at two potentially biological explanations, intelligence or general cognitive ability, and language aptitude or specific language ability.

### Intelligence

There has been a controversy between Oller and others over Oller's (1981 and elsewhere) claims that general intelligence and language proficiency are more or less the same thing. This argument follows from his claim that a general factor exists in language tests and that it has a high correlation with the results of language tests. The issue is also related to the various attempts of Cummins (1980, 1983 and elsewhere) and some of his colleagues to chart the difficult seas of the relations between school-valued abilities and non-school social communicative abilities, an issue tied up with problems of assessing intelligence and comparing social class differences. The explanation for their observations lies in the difficulty of gathering evidence of both language ability and general intelligence. Both make use of various kinds of tests, and there is good reason to suspect that we are then dealing with their shared components. Moreover, both depend (if we accept Jackendoff's hypothesis) on the richness of conceptual structure. At the same time, both are at the mercy of the particular cultural bias of the testing instrument. The most that we can safely say is that there is a high correlation between the scores on intelligence tests and the scores on formal tests of school-related language abilities.

This point is very well illustrated by a recent study by Genesee (1976) in which he looked at the relevance of intelligence (as measured by standardized IQ tests) to performance in immersion and non-immersion French programmes in Montreal. He found that while intelligence was a predictor of the learning of school-related academic language skills, it did not seem to predict the learning of communication skills, even as shown in school-administered interview situations. We may state this as a graded condition:

**Condition 6 (graded typical):** The ability to perform well on standard intelligence tests correlates highly with school-related second language learning (i.e. in functional terms, such tasks as reading and writing of academic material in formal language and as performing abstract tests of structural knowledge) but is unrelated to the learning of a second language for informal and social functions.

### Aptitude

Intelligence was one of the factors considered as a candidate for predicting language aptitude. The question faced by those who tried to develop language aptitude tests was what other measures would predict language learning in a school situation. While the earliest language aptitude tests date from the 1930's (e.g. the Symonds Foreign Language Prognosis Test, 1930), the important work was done by Carroll and Sapon developing the *Modern Language Aptitude Test* published in 1959 and a decade later, the *Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test* (1967) and by Paul Pimsleur with his *Language Aptitude Battery* (1966). As Stern (1983) points out, these tests are interesting not just for their practical usefulness but for their theoretical claims, the most obvious of which is that language aptitude is not a single factor, but a cluster of specific abilities. By analysing the components of each of the tests, as Stern does (1983:371), it is to be seen that several main components are postulated: auditory ability, grammatical sensitivity, and memory.

It would seem that the aptitude tests are concerned, as of course they should be, with the learning of a language for school-related purposes and in a school situation. The assumption remains that they measure, in a school-related way, aspects of aptitude that are likely to be important in accounting for some of the individual differences in informal learning. Each, in other words, taps a graded component of necessary human abilities: the ability to discriminate the sounds of the new language, the ability to generalize about its structure, and the ability to remember its words. Without some basic minimum, no second language learning is possible. The more each is present, the faster control will be achieved and the higher the potential level of success.

**Condition 7 (graded necessary):** In learning to speak and understand a second language, the better a learner can discriminate between the sounds of the language, the better his/her knowledge will be.

**Condition 8 (graded necessary):** In learning a new language, the better the learner's memory, the faster he/she will learn new items and the larger his/her vocabulary will be. This ability may be different for learning words aurally or for learning them visually.

**Condition 9 (graded necessary):** Beyond the necessary miminum ability to "derive a grammar" implicitly, the better a learner's ability to generalize about the structure of the second language (from explicit or implicit generalizations, in whatever forms), the faster he/she will develop control of the grammatical (and pragmatic) structure of a second language.

## Attitude and personality

Attitudes and motivation are more a part of the individual learner than of the society, but they are very greatly influenced by the social context. Here, I shall only deal with personality factors that at the outset might seem to be independent of social context, although they may predict an individual's social behaviour and may be differentially interpreted and valued (and so reinforced?) in various social groups. I will leave the socially influenced factors of attitude and motivation to be considered at another time.

The main studies concerning personality are those of Guiora and the University of Michigan Personality and Language Behavior Research Group. The theoretical framework is restated in Guiora and Acton (1979). The basic question is: "How will language affect personality development and how will personality development in turn affect language behavior?" (1979:195) Guiora's exposition of the importance of personality factors in second language learning is made clearest in two recent papers (1982, 1983). He argues there that language is not just a means of communication but a method of self-representation. Learning a second language involves composing a different organization of perception and conceptualization. Because our native language carries our personal self-representation as well as our "national-cultural epistemology", we naturally cling to it.

There have been a number of attempts to validate this paradigm. A first approach, using the Micromentary Expression test (a measure of empathy based on ability to recognize changes in a woman's expression on a film) did not hold up. A more successful experiment suggested that students became less inhibited and pronounced an unknown foreign language (Thai) better after consuming a small amount of alcohol. In another study, the pronunciation of students who were hypnotizable improved more when hypnotized than the pronunciation of less hypnotizable students (Schumann, Holroyd and Campbell 1978).

Although these studies have not reached the stage where we feel comfortable when we describe personality conditions for second language learning, there is clearly something of importance here. We might speculate for instance about the differential preferences of the introverted and extroverted learner, the former benefiting from conditions of learning that permit quiet introspection and the latter from approaches that encourage immediate public performance. This kind of personality difference supposes the probable weakness of making a generalization such as the claim for the silent period in the work of Krashen, Terrell and Asher. For some learners, a silent period is clearly essential; for others, it is likely to be of little value, and may even lead to lowered motivation. It is also possible that approaches like those of Gattegno, Lozanov and Curran represent attempts to modify conditions in such a way as to overcome the effect of personality matters.

The disparity between teachers' expectations of the language learning task permeates the latter issue. We wish to suggest that any second language learner brings to the language learning situation a set of notions of what is involved in the task; these expectations interact with personality factors and the actual learning situation to determine the strategies that the learner will adopt. For example, the early second language learner (the bilingual who is virtually learning two languages as a first language) quickly learns that the two languages function just like two styles or registers in a single language: Some people expect you to use one language or register, and others expect you to use the other. The later second language learner is likely to consider second language learning similar to the aspect of first language learning that is most salient, usually the learning of vocabulary. The learner who has had a solid dose of formal grammar either in a first or second language will ask similar questions in a new language learning situation. The person to whom a language serves specific social or instrumental purposes will ask how to say the appropriate things. The person who sets very high demands on his or her control of language will similarly expect to achieve a high level of control of the new language, and will often be inhibited from trying to learn if there is some danger of being misunderstood or considered less than highly skilled. Methods for relaxation of anxiety, such as those of Gattegno, Lozanov and Curran, or approaches that call on adults to act like uninhibited children, are aimed at this situation.

**Condition 10 (graded typical):** A learner's expectations of the outcome of language learning interact with learner's personality factors to determine the selection of preferred learning strategies.

We have looked in this paper at evidence from linguistic theory and psycholinguistics for some of the conditions for second language learning that are present in the learner. These factors are all marked by their relative lack of openness to external influence: We do not normally expect to be able to change them. As a result, their direct relevance for language teaching is either in selecting students for special kinds of training or in providing hypotheses for the likelihood of success or failure of various kinds of learning situations. They do, however, illustrate the power and potential of the preference model for deriving a theory of second language learning.

**Notes**

1 Jackendoff (1983:12) rejects the possibility of computer modelling as a constraint on a semantic theory because of the difference between present day computers whose processing is serial and the brain, the processing of which is interactive and parallel. But it would seem that Expert Systems (in Artificial Intelligence) are in fact an attempt to develop models with properties very similar if not identical to the preference model.

2 Cook points out that Chomsky (1980:230) finds the term communicative competence wrong, for there are many purposes of language beyond communication.

3 The notion is worth considering, however, for while we assume that all normal human beings have legs, some have the kind of legs that will help them later become ballet dancers or long distance runners.

4 As Cook (1985) points out, Chomsky argues that even "pure" learning theories of behaviourism assume an innate ability to make associations between stimulus and response.

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PER LINGUAM VOL. 1 NO. 2 1985

# Penetrating learning barriers and the art of suggestion

## Lynn Dhority

A crucial factor preventing students from tapping their full learning potential is their mind set, consisting of subconscious conditioned beliefs, attitudes and self-images. Teachers can learn to work consciously and purposefully to evoke positive responses at the subconscious level in their students, thereby allowing fuller learning potential to unfold. Several specific examples and strategies are discussed.

'n Beslissende faktor wat verhoed dat studente hulle volle leerpotensiaal benut, is geleë in 'n geestesgesteldheid wat bestaan uit gekondisioneerde gelowe, houdings en selfbeelde in die onderbewuste. Dosente kan leer om bewustelik en doelgerig positiewe reaksies in die onderbewuste van hulle studente op te roep om sodoende 'n groter leerpotensiaal te laat ontvou. Verskeie voorbeelde en strategieë word bespreek.

Educators throughout the world face the challenge of assisting learners to transcend the obstacles which prevent them from realizing their true potential. This challenge is clearly an unusually formidable one for South Africa. Obstacles to learning come in many shapes and sizes, but they have certain common characteristics. Most important, both student and teacher share the unspoken belief and acknowledgement of the "difficulties" in learning as real, objective, and given. What many educators remain unaware of is that the teacher all too often communicates low expectations unconsciously through quite unintentional, non-verbal interactions with the student. However unwitting and unintended, as long as this collusion between student and teacher as to the "problematical" nature of education is allowed to prevail, the student is likely to continue fulfilling the hidden prophecy of less than hoped for outcomes, in which all participate.

Such ingrained beliefs operate powerfully in societies across the globe. Although the USA is a country constitutionally founded on the premise of equality for all its citizens, prejudices, racial and otherwise, continue to act as a major deterrent to the educational and social growth advancement of large segments of its society. In South Africa, inequalities operate not only *de facto*, as in the USA, but are constitutionally established and officially supported. As a result, the challenge of liberating the potential of learners, both black and white, is nearly overwhelming. In my view, it would be naive to suppose that simply imparting new educational techniques and methodologies might succeed in meeting the South African educational problems. This paper does not presume to discuss South Africa's political alternatives, but it is my belief that political and educational decisions are inseparable. The ideas presented here presume a fundamental commitment to equality of opportunity for all persons. In the absence of such a commitment, strategies and techniques remain mechanical, devoid of the heart and strength of will which can empower such techniques and make them truly viable.

What can we do as teachers to end the long, ingrained tradition of severely limited expectations operating both inside and outside our students? The purpose of this article is to outline some strategies to meet this dilemma.

### The Pygmalion effect

Rosenthal's startling educational research over a decade ago still serves as a touchstone for raising teacher awareness concerning the determining impact they as persons have on their students (Rosenthal and Jacobson 1968). Rosenthal sees the teacher-student dynamic mirrored in the myth of Pygmalion and speaks of teacher impact as the Pygmalion effect:

> Pygmalion created Galatea out of ivory and desire. In Ovid's account, Pygmalion fell in love with his own sculpture of the perfect woman, and Venus, who spent a lot of time granting requests in those days, gave life to Galatea.
>
> Most of us do not have Pygmalion's power to manufacture the ideal mate ... But we may have an extraordinary influence, of which we are often oblivious, on others. Psychologists have not yet learned how to produce Galatea or her male equivalent in the laboratory, but they have demonstrated that the power of expectation alone can influence the behavior of others. The phenomenon has come to be called self-fulfilling prophecy; people sometimes become what we prophesy for them (Rosenthal 1974).

The importance of Rosenthal's research results can scarcely be overestimated. He reports:

> We selected an elementary school in a lower-class neighborhood and gave all of the children a nonverbal IQ test at the beginning of the school year. We disguised the test as one that would predict intellectual blooming. There were 18 classrooms in the school, three at each of the six grade levels. The three rooms for each grade consisted of children with above-average ability, average ability, and low ability.
>
> After the test, we randomly chose 20 per cent of the children in each room, and labeled them intellectual bloomers. We then gave each teacher the names of these children, who, we explained, could be expected to show remarkable gains during the coming years on the basis of their test scores. *In fact, the difference between the experimental children and the control children was solely in the teacher's mind* (my emphasis).
>
> We retested all the children eight months later. For the school as a whole, we found that the experimental children, those whose teachers had been led to expect "blooming", showed an excess in overall IQ gain of four points over the IQ gain of the control children. Their excess in gain was smaller in verbal ability, two points only, but substantially greater in reasoning where they gained seven points more than the controls. Moreover, *it made no difference whether the child was in the high ability or low ability classroom. The teachers' expectations benefited children at all levels* (my emphasis). The supposed bloomers blossomed, at least modestly (Rosenthal 1974).

The implications of Rosenthal's data are crucial for teachers. His work supports the central role given to the suggestive power of the teacher in the suggestive-accelerative learning models developed by Lozanov, Schuster, myself and others (Dhority 1984). From these experiments we see that the operating assumptions, beliefs, and opinions of the teacher can become a determining factor in student performance. A more pointed formulation: The attitude or inner mind-set which the teacher brings to her/his classroom will translate into student performance. This may sound encouraging for those of us who normally cultivate positive attitudes about our work. But it should be sobering to all of us to acknowledge the accompanying conclusion, that our inner uncertainties, biases, and negative thoughts, unconscious as they may be, work to inhibit our students, thus subverting our more conscious objectives. Thus, we ourselves may play a role in inhibiting our students.

Two personal experiences from my own classroom teaching may illustrate these subconscious forces in action. Ten years ago I was teaching German at the university level in much the same manner as I had experienced foreign language teaching myself. For example, I would exhort my students on the first day of class to work hard, master each step of the way, and to avoid falling behind. My inner operating assumption was based on our departmental statistics. I "knew" that more than 1/3 of the class would drop out by mid-semester, and that a significant number of those remaining would have little aptitude for languages and would barely keep up. Naturally, I concluded that these results, repeated semester after semester, were due to the fact that too few students heeded my initial advice. As the years passed, I found that my enthusiasm for teaching language was steadily dropping, as were the numbers of students completing my German courses. Looking back, I see that although I had a reputation for being a good teacher, I communicated my scepticism and doubt as to any other classroom outcome in countless subliminal ways, through small signs of impatience, and through my voice intonation and facial expression. Students less likely to succeed would receive more critical looks from me than others I thought of as "good students". At the time, of course, I was unaware that messages in *my* behaviour might be affecting the performance of my students.

Some years and much introspection later, I had the opportunity to study with Lozanov, the founder of Suggestology and Suggestopedia. His message was simple and powerful: What we communicate on the "second" or "paraconscious" plane of communication has a decisive effect on the outcome of the communicative process, echoing and extending the findings of Rosenthal. If the messages we are giving out subconsciously are congruent and aligned with our pedagogical purposes as teachers, our positive impact on students can be extraordinary. If, for instance, my non-verbal behaviours truly match my words of encouragement to my students, then such encouragement is likely to be trusted and responded to positively. If, however, I encourage a student to respond freely while at the same time greeting his incorrect attempts with furrowed brow, a critical mien, or impatient body posture, the message will be ambivalent and untrustworthy, and the student will respond to my negative message by inhibiting his future attempts.

An example from my classroom of how positive non-verbal behaviour can make a decisive difference is the case of Roger (not his real name), a student in an intensive German course I gave for the US Army Special Forces. Roger entered the class in the role of the "wise guy", poking fun and acerbic criticism at everyone else. Roger asserted at the outset that he could not learn languages, that "book learning" was not his thing. The team sergeant, his supervisor and fellow members of the class, reinforced this by stressing that Roger was an excellent man in the field but not cut out for classroom work. Thus, I believed his distracting behaviour reflected his attempt to mask his own fears and divert attention away from the learning challenge at hand, about which he felt very inadequate.

Before me stood a classic case of a belief/attitude system readying itself to become a self-fulfilling prophecy of failure. My task was, in Lozanov's terms, to de-suggest the negative set-up and to allow for a positive suggestive environment to take over instead. I assured Roger verbally that the learning approach we would be using would enable him to succeed. However, I was well aware that in all probability such a direct verbal suggestion would not be very effective, since the subconscious level controls and perpetrates the self-limiting messages directing much of our behaviour. To affect this level it would be necessary to speak at the subconscious as well as the conscious level.

I began this task by sitting down with myself. I envisioned Roger as the beautiful human being he is—apart from his behaviour which is often annoying and provocative. I imagined myself in dialogue with him in his essence as a human being, stepping away from my reactions to his class behaviour. I imagined myself affirming his rich capabilities waiting to be released from his impoverished self-image, the product of years of conditioning. I imagined myself trusting Roger's capacity and his inner will to be more fully who he really was, if given favourable conditions. As a result, I resolved to be patient.

During the first third of the course Roger's eyes were rarely available for contact, especially if I were looking for a volunteer or a sign of participating interest. I chose, however, to do what I had rarely done in previous years of traditional teaching: I chose to keep offering my invitation to Roger, day after day, even though his response remained minimal. In earlier years I would have silently contracted with this type of student in the backrow with downcast eyes. We would have both non-verbally agreed to leave each other alone. I would have turned my nourishing energy to those who were ready to give me responsiveness in return. With Roger, however, I remained alert to any opportunity to provide him with positive reinforcement, and I found that I never tired of confidently offering him new opportunities to step beyond his self-limiting beliefs. At times I did this verbally, but more effectively, I am sure, were non-verbal cues, particularly facial expressions of interest, affirmation, and delight. I stayed alert for the opportunity to offer countless little responses which might give him the message that I liked him, that I believed in him, and that I was there to help him.

During the last third of the course Roger broke through his limitations. He began exclaiming: "I'm actually getting this!" From this point on, he became a willing, tireless volunteer. He finished the course with satisfactory albeit lower test scores than the others. The real learning accomplishment, however, was personal and lasting. Roger enrolled in another German course, then went on to a visit to relatives in Germany. He sought me out a year later, consenting to speak to me only in German. He spoke in a very adequate, functional German! With Roger, I sensed the importance of my choice to relate from the beginning with a persistently positive suggestive attitude. His performance in German might have confirmed what he believed he already "knew", that is, that he "couldn't learn languages". I knew better, and now, we both know.

Marshall McLuhan's famous phrase, "the medium is the message" becomes all the more significant for us teachers when we realize that *we are the medium* for what we teach. We cannot divorce our selves or our personalities from the material we teach, for, in reality, teaching can never be the objective presentation of an isolated body of material we often assume it to be. Teaching is a process of communication, and we as teachers, are the vehicles for this process. Indeed, we *embody* what is presented, giving both conscious and unconscious physical expression to what we teach. Thus, we offer our knowledge through many types of expression besides our words and materials. Even our most sublime abstract thoughts must take expression through our personal instrument. And each of us works with an expressive instrument which can and often does betray the attitudes and beliefs which we may have no conscious intention of communicating. Our students, however, are master decoders, as all humans are, and they read the totality of our signals quite unconsciously. Our students may not be completely aware of the effects we have upon them, but they respond to us decisively, nevertheless.

### Practical strategies for embodying positive suggestion

Whether we use the powerful medium of suggestion is not a choice we teachers have. We are employing suggestion all the time, whether we know it or not. The myriad of ways we use ourselves as transmitters for all kinds of messages, both positive and negative, is far too great to fully elaborate here. The important question is how can we learn to transmit the messages we really desire to convey to our students. What follows is a brief discussion of three sample strategies. The underlying purpose of these three ideas is to help teachers focus more easily on the subconscious level of their work in order to most powerfully effect meaningful changes in the classroom. Most of our behaviour is decisively influenced by the mind's subconsciously operating "programmes". When we consciously learn how to influence this subconscious level of response, we are influencing the roots of the brain's programme, allowing changes in the mental structures which, in turn, determine future behaviour. Each of these strategies can affect the teaching and learning process by using suggestive impact powerfully and positively:

A Direct attention first to the essence of the message, secondarily on techniques employed.
B Cultivate curiosity and acceptance between teacher and student rather than judgement.
C Utilize the power of a freshly orchestrated physical setting.

### Essence or technique?

Most teachers seek a set of techniques that will work to make their students learn better. There is no lack of learning techniques being proposed today. Most of them prove to be very effective—in the hands of their originators. But why does the success of the originator meet obstacles in the transfer to the attempts of others? The answer lies frequently in the fact that the success of a technique may not lie simply in the technique, but rather in the full essence of the person who uses it. Even the best teachers often mistakenly attribute their successes to their techniques alone. Then, when they proceed to transfer their technique, they are surprised to find that the technique is somehow weaker in the hands of others.

Techniques are most valuable when they are congruently wedded to the person of the teacher and effectively bridged to the personalities of the students. Thus, one way to optimize our effectiveness as teachers is to cultivate our inner qualities as teachers and communicators. Thus, any technique we use will carry the essence, that is, the teacher-qualities with it. It may be helpful to think of ourselves as embodiers rather than executors of techniques. If we do not feel comfortable and "congruent" with what we are doing, then what we do becomes less likely to be successful. Some of the qualities we might wish to actively cultivate and learn how to express in the classroom are love of our subject, joy, curiosity, caring, and acceptance.

### Cultivating curiosity and acceptance rather than judgement

Teachers are often asked to evaluate their students. They are responsible for assessing what and how well students have learned. However, this role of the discriminating evaluator easily slips into that of the criticizing and judgemental authority figure. Indeed, most students project onto us as teachers their own expectations that we will be providing them with critical and judgemental feedback, for that is the quality they have most often experienced in their parents and teachers. We may find ourselves willingly or unwittingly accepting this mantle of power and authority offered to us. The temptation is great, but at the subconscious level the price is high.

Judgement and criticism and their allies, power and authoritarianism, are serious enemies to learning and teaching which fulfils the teacher and the student. From a psychological standpoint, criticism and judgement are bound up with fear reactions, and the brain perceives them as threats to one's safety and integrity. Such reactions are antagonistic to what Hart terms "brain-compatible" learning. Hart, in *Human Brain, Human Learning* (1983) argues persuasively for constructing a learning environment free of threat implications, thereby encouraging the brain to respond through productive risk-taking. He describes how the most highly developed mental abilities located in the cerebral cortex will be shut off under threat and fear in order that the more primitive, "reptilian" portion of our brain can take over to protect our welfare with its fight/flight responses. Many students perceive classroom environments as unsafe places to take risks because of the constant fear of being "wrong", thus remaining cautious and guarded. When, as teachers, we perhaps unknowingly project a critical, judgemental attitude we reinforce a student's fears, mistrust and expectations, and thus inhibit functioning at higher levels of intelligence potential.

Acceptance of students *as they are*, on the other hand, can significantly transform the atmosphere of a classroom, creating a climate for "breakthrough" learning. Acceptance does not mean buying into a student's self-limiting belief system or self-image. Acceptance means meeting a student where he is without the judgement that he "should" somehow be different. Acceptance implies compassion and understanding. Acceptance evokes trust. In such a climate of safety, we can present an *invitation* rather than a demand to learn, grow, become more and more free, and an invitation is more likely to be accepted. We cannot *make* anyone learn. What we can do is to create a safe, rich learning environment and invite others to enter, and believe in the power of the seed to flower under such conditions.

Curiosity is a valuable quality, especially when coupled with acceptance, to create alternatives in situations often triggering negative judgements. Curiosity is dynamic, open, non-dogmatic, seeking. When we accept students just as they are *and* then, seek with quiet curiosity to discover ways to serve them in their learning process, they can respond with the motivation necessary to go beyond old limits.

A case in point is that of a young woman in one of my German classes who came to me after three days of class and told me that the course was a very stressful experience for her and that she did not know how to handle it. My first inner reaction was self-critical. How had I failed? I thought that in spite of my good intentions I must be creating a stressful environment for her. My own self-judgement contained a flip-side consisting of defensiveness and potential criticism of the young woman. Rather than fall into either interpretation, I chose to become curious about the nature of her own experience of the class. She then reported that she had just returned to school after working through a nervous breakdown and that the relaxed, invitational atmosphere of the class was a hard adjustment for her. She had looked to the university setting for rigid structure and clearly defined limits, so that her fragile personality could feel order and security. She said she was afraid she might not be able to function well by relaxing and opening in the ways I was encouraging the class.

I observed that the young woman was experiencing a conflict between what she felt she needed and what she felt the class required. Thus, I invited her to take notice of all the structured aspects of the class, such as the request for punctuality, regular attendance, participation, etc., and encouraged her to use the class in as demanding a way as might be helpful to her. I told her that there was no "relaxation requirement", that she could be as "serious" about the course as she felt she needed to be.

In this case, a simple curiosity had led me to a better understanding and acceptance of her need. For her part, once she felt that her need had been acknowledged and accepted, she proceeded to embrace the experience of the course more fully than I could have imagined. Acceptance of her as she was took not only the verbal form cited, but numerous other, mostly non-verbal signals as well, e.g. smiles of encouragement and understanding, expressions of delight at her comprehension, production, etc. She finished with great success and wrote on her evaluation that the class had been one of the most important learning experiences of her life.

## The suggestive power of the physical environment: unsettling the set

In the minds of many the suggestive-accelerative learning model is associated with Lozanov's Suggestopedia with its comfortable reclining chairs, carefully and aesthetically arranged instructional room and specially integrated music. Many teachers turn away from Suggestopedia because, concluding that it seems to require an elaborate physical set-up, they cannot conceive of how it could be realized in their teaching settings with space, budget, and long-established organizational constraints. However, if we heed the powerful principles which underlie a suggestopedic environment, we can speculate that the magic does not lie in the comfortable chairs, the art reproductions, or in a Mozart piano concerto. The magic lies in the suggestive psychological interaction between the students' inner mind-set and the entire external physical set-up. Thus, without miraculous changes in our institutions all of us can actually make effective modifications in our teaching environments.

The purpose of carefully orchestrating the physical environment is twofold. First, we can, by using comfortable chairs, proper lighting and appropriate music, facilitate the creation of a relaxed instructional setting. This aspect of the physical environment has been discussed at length by myself (Dhority 1984).

The second, related purpose of consciously orchestrating the instructional setting is to affect the student's subconscious mind-set. Lozanov characterizes his model as a de-suggestive/suggestive process. We might more easily understand "de-suggestive" as a type of de-conditioning or desensitization. Our students come to us highly conditioned by their past learning experiences in school. Often their self-images are fixed, as are their expectations and images of learning, teaching, teachers, school, languages, maths, etc. Since we in the teaching role may have very different images and expectations of the learning process, our expectations and beliefs will necessarily bump up against the inner mind-set of our students. An important question is: What would make a student change his limiting inner image/attitude about learning into one which would serve him better? The words we use might be only partially effective. Because students have spent many of their school years being constantly barraged by words, their defences against conscious, direct verbal suggestion are quite well-developed. Students are accustomed to new sets of verbal requirements associated with moves from one teacher to another. They vary their behaviour as necessary to satisfy the variations on the theme of teacher/school. Thus, the inner mind-set consisting of sub-conscious, programmed attitudes remains largely unchallenged.

Altering the physical environment can be an attractive and effective strategy for penetrating the inner mind-set of the student, allowing us to work at both the de-suggestive and suggestive levels. The inner mind-set is based on and thrives on redundancy, and sameness is a hallmark of the physical setting of most educational institutions. Our students have usually seen tens if not hundreds of look-alike classrooms before they enter our class. Their expectations are generally set and are normally confirmed upon entering a room. The chairs are of a certain familiar type, placed in a certain arrangement, and the bare walls, the blackboard, the teacher's lectern confirm the established, accepted picture. Before we even open our mouths on the first day to utter our first words, the student's conditioned attitude about school and this class have been quietly reinforced.

If our objective is to help a student break through his subconscious attitudes so that he can tap his greater potential, then the last thing we want is to confirm past experiences and attitudes. Ideally, when our students first walk into our classroom, fresh expectations should be evoked. In some way, perhaps different for every teacher, students should be taken a little by surprise. The tentative openness in their surprise provides us with a valuable opportunity. We can then enter with freshly orchestrated input, designed to bypass the old programmes, awakening students to new possibilities.

A case in point is my own "Experiencing German", an intensive beginning language course at the University of Massachusetts at Boston. On the first day of class I have carefully prepared the very ordinary room in advance: fresh cut flowers on the table, an oval rug on the floor, blue and green colour inserts to mute the fluorescent light panels, colourful posters depicting attractive scenes from Germany, Austria and Switzerland as well as posters with verbal suggestions such as **play, relax** and German phrases to be used in the hours to come, comfortable chairs with arms and headrests arranged in a half-circle, easels with pads and colour markers instead of blackboards, and a stereo music system playing a Mozart Divertimento in the background. I asked students to wait in a small anteroom until I ask them to enter the classroom. There they may have coffee, tea, and hot chocolate. This is the stage set for the crucial first day of class.

At 09h00 sharp, when the three-hour class is scheduled to begin, I open the door and invite the students to come in, greeting each one with a smile and eye contact. As may be imagined, this is like no other class they have ever begun. Their faces betray surprise, wonder, expectancy, curiosity, pleasure, delight—and in the case of some, a hint of scepticism or suspicion behind their wait-and-see expression. Nowhere do I see an expression of comfortably settling into a "known" or familiar environment. I believe the environment I am creating is rich with non-verbal, positive suggestions with the potential of evoking a high level of expectancy. (For a detailed description of first day teacher behaviour and techniques, see Dhority 1984.) The unexpected physical set-up has caught the students off-guard. A fresh space has been created, unfilled by old associations, without confirming old biases. The rigidity of mind-set patterns is suspended for a moment. Something new, fresh, possible can be entertained without the weight of the past, the "known", interfering to its usual degree. They have unsettled the "set". This can be thought of as preparing the ground for seeding breakthrough attitudes through the positive, suggestive strategies, both verbal and non-verbal which will follow in the hours to come (Dhority 1984).

Altering the physical environment to the degree described above is not necessary in order to make numerous significant "unsettling", positive changes just discussed. We can bring in music—with our own portable cassette players, if need be. Suppose we share the room with other teachers and courses, we can perhaps store some environmental supports in a corner cabinet or box. Items such as a colourful cloth to cover the teacher's table, posters and pins, a small rug to unroll, a floor lamp—how little it actually takes to bring an appreciated touch of life into the moribund sameness of most institutions. Obviously, the more one can do, the better. Yet we all can do something. And the effort is worth it. These seemingly gratuitous, aesthetic touches can have significant impact on achievement of our instructional goals.

Thus, there are simple but significant possibilities for opening student potential through the all-important vehicle for learning, the student-teacher relationship. The student remains dependent upon the teacher to make the first move in breaking the limits of the prevailing mind-set. The teacher can greatly enhance his/her suggestive power in the classroom as more attention is given to embodiment and essence, to acceptance and curiosity, and to conscious orchestration of many unspoken elements affecting the student at the unconscious level.

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*Clear arrangement. (Lucido ordo.)*

*– Horace*

*The only things in life in which we can be said to have any property, are our actions.*

*– C. C. Colton*

PER LINGUAM VOL. 1 NO. 2 1985

# Accelerated learning techniques for the foreign language classroom

W. Jane Bancroft

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Recently researchers and teachers have noticed that more and more students have trouble learning. The causes for poor student learning are many and varied. To remedy the situation, programmes have been implemented in many educational institutions to reduce stress and improve concentration, and to accelerate learning. The author suggests accelerated learning techniques for the foreign language classroom.

In die jongste tyd het navorsers en onderwysers opgemerk dat steeds meer studente probleme het met leer. Die oorsake hiervoor is menigvuldig en uiteenlopend van aard. In 'n poging om die situasie te verbeter, is daar met programme begin om spanning in die opvoedingsituasie te verminder, sowel as om konsentrasie te verbeter en die leerproses te versnel. Die skrywer bespreek enkele tegnieke vir versnelde leerprosesse in vreemdetaal-onderrig.

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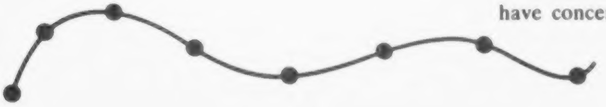
In recent years, researchers and teachers in many countries have noticed that more and more students have trouble learning. The causes for poor student learning are no doubt many and varied, but would certainly include (in addition to such obvious ones as drugs and alcohol) junk foods and/or poor nutrition, lack of exercise, physical and psychological stress and, in the opinion of Marshall McLuhan, a short concentration span—often induced by the watching of too much television. To remedy the situation, programmes have been, and are being implemented in many educational institutions to reduce stress and improve concentration, on the one hand, and to accelerate learning, on the other.

Accelerated learning (or "superlearning") techniques may be divided into two categories: (1) those which serve as a preliminary to learning; (2) those which apply specifically to the learning of a given discipline, say, a foreign language. Preliminary techniques include: physical relaxation; mental relaxation (or mind-calming); breathing exercises (including co-ordination of breathing with mental and physical activity); outward concentration exercises; visualization (or inner concentration) exercises. Those techniques or approaches which apply specifically to language learning are adapted from Sophrology, a system founded by a Colombian medical doctor and therapist, Caycedo[1], and Suggestology/Suggestopedia, a system founded by Lozanov, a Bulgarian medical doctor and therapist.[2] Both methods are based on raja yoga and involve learning in two complementary states of consciousness: a wide-awake, alert level and a deeper, more relaxed level.[3] Studies that have been conducted in the United States by researchers affiliated with the Society for Accelerative Learning and Teaching have shown, for example, that adaptations of Suggestopedia, when properly used by a competent and personable teacher, have speeded up learning and improved retention by 2,5 to 3 times.[4]

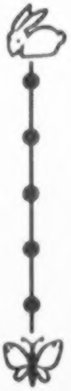
Experts recommend that physical relaxation should precede mental relaxation which, in turn, should precede concentration exercises. (The Chinese know this and, in the People's Republic of China, students are put through 20 minutes of special exercises every morning, before classes begin, and every three to four hours thereafter.) Sample physical activities include: stretching exercises; jumping on the spot; shaking out the tension in the arms and legs. Neck rolls and the progressive relaxation exercise (in which the key areas of the body from feet to head are relaxed in turn) may be performed while the students are seated comfortably, but with a good posture, in their chairs. Mind-calming exercises comprise "seeing" a little white cloud moving in the sky on a warm summer's day or climbing an imaginary mountain to watch a beautiful sunrise. An exercise such as "early pleasant learning recall" in which the students are encouraged to return to a past childhood situation where learning was pleasurable, not only induces a state of mental relaxation but also improves student motivation.[5]

It is very important for students to be in a well-ventilated classroom, seated in an erect posture and breathing properly if concentration and learning are to occur. Books on yoga may be consulted for breathing techniques, but the main points are: breathing through the nose; breathing slowly and deeply from the abdomen; and breathing in a rhythmic manner, by harmonizing the three "moments": inhalation, retention of the inhaled air and exhalation. Sample breathing exercises include having the students (1) concentrate on their breathing for 30 seconds, visualizing the air inside them; (2) check their pulse beat and make their breathing rhythm coincide with their heart rate; (3) count the number of breaths they take within one minute. The next step is to co-ordinate breathing with mental and physical activity. Physical activities might include synchronizing breathing with four separate movements: get up, raise your arm, sit down, pick up a pencil; inhale while executing the first two movements, pause (and hold breath), exhale while performing the last two movements. Mental activities could comprise reading a text while counting the number of breaths one takes; co-ordinating breathing rhythm with pulse rate and at the same time reading a lesson paragraph; copying down several lines from a book while breathing slowly and deeply.[6]

Another useful set of preliminary exercises involves the harmonization of breathing with outward concentration. For example, on a wavy line marked as follows:

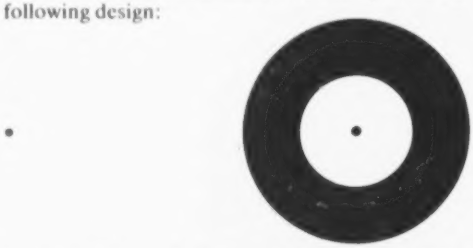


Students may be asked to breathe in from left to right and then to breathe out from right to left, while their gaze moves slowly from point to point along the line. The teacher may draw on the blackboard two figures linked by a vertical line of about one metre in length:



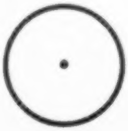
The students are asked to exhale, look at the lower drawing and inhale slowly while moving their gaze up the line, point by point. When the upper design is reached, the students look at it, hold their breath and then commence a slow exhalation while moving their glance back down the line, point by point, until the lower design has been reached. After a several seconds' pause, the exercise begins again. (Students can move their heads or their eyes alone during this exercise.)

Concentration exercises begin with fixing one's outward attention on geometric shapes or patterns, reminiscent of the mandala. For example, in the following design:



Students are asked to concentrate on the small dot situated in the centre of the figure at the right (30 seconds). Then they are asked to transfer their gaze to the dot at the left of the design. (If the students have concentrated properly on the figures, they should see, on the left, the same figure as on the right, except that the colours are reversed.)

Another sample exercise involves both outer and inner concentration:



The students are asked to concentrate on the black circle and then to try to project a cross onto the inside of it, cutting through the dot. Then the students, with eyes closed, are asked to visualize the same geometric shape—a circle with a dot inside it and a cross projected on the circle—and to fix their inner attention on this design.

An exercise which involves inner and outer concentration, on the one hand, and a "life-affirming" or motivating factor, on the other, is the following:

VIE

Concentrate your attention on the word VIE (one minute). Now close your eyes and relax your eyelids. Imagine a white screen on which the word VIE is printed in black. Let the word disappear. With your eyes closed, recreate a white screen. Project the word VIE in black on this screen. Visualize clearly the separate letters. Keep this word in your mind's eye as long as possible.

A sample visualization exercise involves having the students choose two mental images, say, two different objects or two different geometric shapes (a blue circle, a green square). The students are asked to close their eyes, relax their eyelids and breathe slowly and deeply from the abdomen. As the students breathe in, they are asked to visualize clearly one of the two images. As they hold their breath, they visualize this inner image. While breathing out, they clearly visualize the second image, as if they were "changing slides". During a pause between breaths, they continue to visualize the second image. Next they breathe in and clearly visualize the first image once again, as the exercise is repeated.[7]

Now that the students have performed the preliminary exercises, they are ready to become acquainted with the Sophrology memory training system (Entrenamiento Sofrológico de la Memoria) and with Suggestopedia, two methods which, as previously mentioned, involve learning in two complementary states of consciousness: outer concentration on the text and inner visualization of the text. While Suggestopedia is ideally suited to rote memorization of basic factual materials and is what one might term "teacher-directed", the Sophrology memory training system is designed to improve the memory in a global sense and is what one might call "inner-directed".

The Sophrology memory training system is derived from Japanese Zen and from the third degree (or part) of Caycedo's dynamic relaxation programme.[8] For therapeutic and pedagogical reasons, Caycedo insists on the positive aspects of memory (for example, positive, as opposed to negative or "neutral" sensations). He believes that memory has five functions: (1) evocation of a positive sensation from the past; (2) fixation or concentration on this positive sensation; (3) association of colours, objects, persons with this positive sensation; (4) repetition, so that the positive sensation can be impressed on the mind; (5) presentation of an amplification or summary of this positive sensation in written or oral form. In the classroom, the Caycedo system for memory training uses study or exam situations, instead of personal or therapeutic ones. Once the students have been properly trained, they are able, just before an examination, to visualize themselves in the appropriate posture and to put themselves mentally into the appropriate state of relaxed alertness.

Caycedo believes that the physical and psychological aspects of man are inseparably linked and that the body is an ideal instrument for developing or training the memory. Important "body elements" for memory training are: abdominal respiration and co-ordination of breathing with thought or image; proper cerebral circulation (as aided, for example, by the relaxation of the neck muscles); correct posture(s). A standing posture is used for relaxation exercises; two seated postures are used for memory training. An inclined seated posture, with eyes closed, is used for evocation, fixation and association. A modified Zen posture, with back straight up and eyes open, knees bent and feet under the chair, is used for repetition and/or organization. In Sophrology (in contrast, as we shall see, to Suggestopedia) one normally moves from a deeper level of consciousness to a relaxed but nonetheless alert state.

Originally developed for therapeutic purposes, the Sophrology memory training system can also be used for studying printed materials. If such is the case, the postures and the corresponding levels of consciousness are reversed. First, one looks at the material (a language dialogue, for example) with intense concentration and in an upright posture; secondly, one closes one's eyes and, in an inclined seated posture, one "visualizes" the main points (or the precise words) of what one has just read, by projecting these onto an inner mental screen. Then, with eyes open, one rereads the material to see if it has been fully "registered". In contrast to Suggestopedia, no music is used as background in Sophrology and the student can move at his or her own pace.

As developed at the Institute of Suggestology in Sofia, Bulgaria in the late 1960's and early 1970's by Aleko Novakov and his colleagues, under Lozanov's direction, the original suggestopedic language class featured a special relaxation session for unconscious assimilation of the lesson material. The session was usually the conclusion of a three-part intensive class that also included conversational review and presentation of new material. To help overcome inhibitions and to allow for more spontaneous expression in the classroom, each student was given a new name and a new (foreign) identity—French, English, Italian, etc. The new material presented to the students consisted largely of dialogues based on "real life". The dialogues involved general or universal situations (home, family, daily activities, renting a hotel room, eating in a restaurant, city and country tours, cultural events) and were designed to stimulate positive emotions in the students.[9]

The third part of the suggestopedic language class, the session or *séance* as it was known, was originally divided into two parts, active and passive, with each part comprising twenty minutes, the ideal meditation period in yoga. During the active part (i.e. the period of active or outward concentration on the text), the teacher presented the appropriate foreign-language words or phrases with three different yogic intonations—declarative, whisper, loud command—while the students looked at the dialogue on the printed page and repeated to themselves (using inner speech) the appropriate foreign-language words and phrases. During the passive part (i.e. the period of inner concentration on the text), the teacher read the language dialogue a second time but now in a soft, soothing voice over a background of slow movements (MM 60) from baroque chamber music for stringed instruments, while the students, with eyes closed and in a relaxed posture, meditated on the text.

In the two parts of the session, the material was presented rhythmically on an eight-second cycle: two seconds—translation; four seconds—foreign-language phrase; two seconds—pause. The students were trained to breathe deeply and rhythmically in accordance with the teacher's voice and/or the baroque slow movements. (A rhythm of MM 60, or 60 beats to the minute, is considered, in Indian philosophy, to be the ideal beat for meditation.) During the concert session, in particular, the lyrical and rhythmic music, the artistic and rhythmic rendering of the text by the teacher, the rhythmic, deep breathing and meditative state of the students contributed (and contribute) to a marked decrease in fatigue and tension and a marked increase in the memorization of foreign-language materials.

**It is, of course, not possible in a foreign-language class of fifty minutes' duration to put the students through a lengthy series of physical and mental relaxation exercises. Nor is it possible, except in an immersion programme, to utilize all the appropriate aspects of Sophrology and Suggestopedia.** However, I have found in my language classes that it *is* possible, on a regular basis, to incorporate a few relaxation exercises into the classperiod, to insist on good posture and proper breathing techniques and to utilize what might be termed a mini-session, in which the text, once it has been thoroughly analyzed, is read over a background of baroque music in a soft and persuasive voice. In my opinion, suggestopedic/sophrological techniques definitely improve the class atmosphere and student performance, even when these techniques are limited to (or by) the traditional foreign-language classroom.[10]

**Notes**

1 For a thorough, but nonetheless readable account of Sophrology, see: Henri Boon, Yves Davrou and Jean-Claude Macquet, *La Sophrologie* (Paris: Editions Retz, 1976).

2 See: Bagriana Bélanger, *La Suggestologie* (Paris: Editions Retz, 1978). Bélanger's book is much better organized and much easier to read than the English translation of Lozanov's thesis (*Suggestology and outlines of Suggestopedy* [New York: Gordon and Breach, 1978]). See, also, an important bibliography by Milla Bayuk: Suggestology and Suggestopedia: A selective bibliography of Western sources, *ERIC Documents on Foreign Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 1980, ED 192 556. (The ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., has probably the largest collection of articles in microfiche and hard copy on Suggestopedia, Accelerative Learning and related matters.)

3 For a comparison of five methods based in whole or in part on unconscious assimilation (i.e. Suggestology/Suggestopedia, Sophrology, the Tomatis method, Soviet hypnopedia, the Suzuki approach), see W. Jane Bancroft's article: Unconscious Assimilation in Foreign Language Learning, *New approaches in foreign language methodology* (15th AIMAV Colloquium), ed. Wil Knibbeler and Marij Bernards (Nijmegen: University of Nijmegen, 1984), pp. 18-24.

4 See Bancroft's article, The Lozanov method and its American adaptations, *The Modern Language Journal*, 62 (1978), pp. 167-75.

5 The mental relaxation exercises, in particular, are taken from: Donald H. Schuster, Ray Benitez-Bordon and Charles Gritton, *Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching: A manual of classroom procedures based on the Lozanov method* (Des Moines: Society for Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching, 1976). A new edition is to appear in 1985, under the direction of Donald Schuster, Professor of Psychology at Iowa State University and one of the pioneers in accelerative learning in the United States.

6 Most of these exercises are taken from an interesting work by Jacques de Coulon, *Eveil et Harmonie de la Personnalité: Culture physique et psychique par la Méthode arc-en-ciel* (Lausanne: Editions du Signal, 1977).

7 Concentration and visualization exercises are taken from Jacques de Coulon's book which is available, along with many other materials of a similar nature, from Micheline Flak, Groupe de Recherche sur le Yoga dans l'Education, Collège Condorcet, 61, rue d'Amsterdam, Paris.

8 For more information on the Sophrology memory training system, see: Yves Davrou and Françoise Leclerq, *Les Etonnantes Possibilités de votre Mémoire par la Sophrologie* (Paris: Editions Retz, 1982). See, also, Bancroft's article: Caycedo's Sophrology and Lozanov's Suggestology: Mirror images of a system, *ERIC Documents*, 1979, ED 183 033.

9 or more information on the original suggestopedic system, see my article: The Lozanov language class, *ERIC Documents*, 1975, ED 108 475.

10 For further discussion of this issue, see my article: Suggestopedia, Sophrology and the traditional foreign language class, *Foreign Language Annals*, 15 (1982), 373-79.

PER LINGUAM VOL. 1 NO. 2 1985

# Stories and story telling in first-level language learning: a re-evaluation

Robert W. Blair

This paper proposes that in the midst of all our theories on language teaching and language learning, we might have overlooked an age-old tool that has always been at the disposal of mankind; the telling of stories. Attention is drawn to how some have found in stories and story telling a driving force of natural language acquisition, a key that can unlock the intuitive faculties of the mind. A case is being made out for the re-instalment of stories and associated activities as a means of real, heart-felt functional communication in a foreign language, rather than through a direct assault on the structure of the language itself.

Met hierdie artikel word daar voorgestel dat daar opnuut gekyk moet word na 'n hulpmiddel wat so oud is as die mensheid self en wat nog altyd tot ons beskikking was, naamlik stories en die vertel daarvan. Die aandag word daarop gevestig dat daar persone is wat in stories en die verbale oordrag daarvan 'n stukrag ontdek het tot natuurlike taalvaardigheid, 'n sleutel tot die intuïtiewe breinfunksies. Daar word 'n saak uitgemaak vir die terugkeer na stories en gepaardgaande aktiwiteite as middel tot 'n egte, diep deurleefde en funksionele wyse van kommunikasie in 'n vreemde taal, eerder as 'n direkte aanslag op die taalstruktuur self.

It is not unwise occasionally to re-examine the past, to reconsider the value even of things that were abandoned. In doing this we may happen upon ideas and techniques which perhaps with some sharpening and shaping could be adapted to current needs. For example, in the history of aircraft design we have seen a curious development. The Wright Brothers designed their flying machine with a forward canard (a horizontal stabilizing and control surface placed at the front of the fusilage), but a decade or so later the canard was abandoned, its function taken over by the elevators in the tail assembly. Now, however, 80 years later, aircraft designers have found new utility in this original feature and are experimenting with aircraft of extraordinary speed and manoeuvrability, designed with a forward canard.

Just as the forward canard was replaced by the tail assembly, so also in language teaching, stories and story telling at the most elementary level have generally been pushed back under pressure for a more immediate thrust toward conversation. Their tremendous power is not being exploited, indeed is being neglected. It is the aim of this paper to look at stories and story telling as primary components of language teaching and language learning even at the beginning level.

If the attainment of communicative competence in a language is taken as the ultimate goal of language study, and if one equates communicative competence primarily with the ability to engage in conversation with native speakers, it is easy to understand why it is that many language teachers take their primary task to be to teach their students to engage in conversation and why from early on, they are likely to eschew other kinds of texts in favour of contrived model dialogues such as the following.

A A man and a woman meet at a cocktail party in London.

Hello. My name is John Smith.
How do you do? I am Mary Brown.
Mary, where are you from?
I'm from Chicago. And you?
I'm from Pretoria.
Oh, so you're from Illinois too.
No, I'm from South Africa.

Beyond the usual practice in repeating, drilling and enacting a conversational text such as this, not infrequently there follows a battery of questions on the text. For example:

B In the dialogue, what is the name of the woman?
Where is she from?
What is Mr Smith's first name?
Where is he from?
Is Pretoria in Illinois?
Etc.

Material such as this seems defensible in that it can present a simulation of language use essential for interpersonal communication in certain social functions (e.g. meeting people, asking directions, ordering a meal, etc.) which learners can imagine they may some day face in real life. And through questions it focuses the learners' attention on specific information contained in the text and on how that information is expressed in the language. The classroom thus provides opportunity for systematic practice in communication activities.

Advantages of teaching a language with such material need hardly be pointed out, not least among them being that learners are often satisfied they are getting the refined nutrition they imagine is needed to enable them to build the communicative competence they aspire to, the ability to improvise speech—for conversation is in large part improvised speech. And instructors too, anxious to provide the tools for conversation, are satisfied that such a direct assault on conversational language leads most efficiently to the ultimate conquest, or at least to the point at which the student can effectively improvise his own end of conversations.

While recognizing the attraction of an approach that concentrates almost exclusively on teaching conversational language, this paper presents an alternative view. It looks back on a time when a more leisurely approach to language study gave occasion for the early use of poems and stories and captivating narratives. It suggests that we look again at some of the properties and uses and values of the kind of material that has been crowded out in the rush toward conversational speech. It suggests that perhaps we are too concerned too early with getting down to the business of induction into conversational speech, and that other kinds of texts deserve more attention and perhaps different treatment than they are or were customarily given.

Consider the following text, instantly recognizable as belonging to a register of "mother-teaching-child-in-lap" or "teacher-talk" encountered not infrequently in beginning language classes.

C This is a table. That is a book.
What is this? This is a table.
And what is that? That is a book.
The book is on the table.
Where is the book? The book is on the table.
Yes, the book is on the table.

This kind of language use which is characteristic of the initial hours of a "Berlitz-type direct approach" hardly resembles adult conversational speech. However, this approach does have its defenders who point out that by dealing at once with ostensible objects and their overt manipulation, and by weaving in questions which evoke obvious answers, such texts and accompanying activities can provide immediate and massive injections of comprehensible input. Such injections will lead quickly to simple responses that place little burden on the learner, yet they can result in rapid learning.

Clearly, texts A–C have their place in the ecology of speech and social interaction—including a respectable place in language teaching methodology. But now consider texts D–G below, obviously of a genre very different from the above.

D *The story of the three bears and Goldilocks*

Once upon a time there were three bears who lived in a house in the middle of the forest ...

E One potato, two potato, three potato, four,
five potato, six potato, seven potato more.

F One for the money,
Two for the show,
Three to get ready,
And four to go.

G Heads, shoulders, knees and toes,
knees and toes, knees and toes
Heads, shoulders, knees and toes,
eyes, ears, mouth and nose.

It cannot be denied that these texts too have their place in the ecology of speech and social interaction—including a place in language teaching methodology—though as with text C one cannot claim that they have much in common with the language of everyday conversation.

### Casual versus non-casual speech in language teaching

A teacher of mine, C.F. Voegelin, found it useful to classify all language texts as either "casual" or "non-casual" speech. He would identify texts A–C above, along with all other "talk off the top of one's head" as of the casual variety, and texts D–G along with all other poems, stories, and other thought-out-in-advance texts as of the non-casual variety. It is this "non-casual" variety of speech and its place in the teaching and learning of language that is the focus of interest here.

If the rush to provide immediate tools for conversation allows non-conversational texts to be crowded out, such texts as C–G might well be relegated to a very minor role. It is argued here, however, that certain forms of "non-casual" speech—stories or story telling in particular—could profitably be given a much more prominent role in elementary language courses and exploited in many productive ways, even if the ultimate aim is the ability to engage in conversation. It is recognized that while giving a more prominent role to "non-casual" speech may be incompatible with making a direct assault on conversation, in the long run it may prove to be more effective in helping many learners acquire communicative competence.

### What is extraordinary about non-casual texts?

Looking dispassionately at such non-casual texts as these, one might well ask what they have in them to recommend them for inclusion in a beginning language course. In order to demonstrate that there is indeed something quite extraordinary about them, I shall make some observations on the learnability and survivability of such texts, as opposed to the improvised texts of ordinary conversation. To begin with, it is worthy of note that these texts are learned (by native speakers) often on first hearing, and without rehearsal are passed on more or less word for word from person to person, and even from generation to generation. Typically transmitted in oral rather than written form, these particular texts (D–G)—and uncountable others—seem to have penetrated every neighbourhood in every corner of America. It is likely that most children raised in any part of America in the past century learned and used in some way texts D–G, and though many adults may not have heard them or spoken them for decades, yet they instantly recognize them and can probably even perform them from memory. This is certainly extraordinary.

If we look for features in the composition of these kinds of texts which conduce to ease of learning and performance and also to their survival in a person's and a community's memory over a very long period of time, we would probably find the following: imagery, logical organization, rhyme, rhythm, repetition, redundancy, symmetry, and the like. In short such non-casual texts as these have features in their rhetorical structure which render them learnable and memorable.

If we look for features in the content of these kinds of texts, we often find matters of intrinsic human interest. When a child hears the words "Once upon a time ..." an expectation of receiving something of special value is set up in his mind that works like magic. Or when adults hear someone say "Have you heard the story about the man who ..." or "The other day a fellow came over to my house to talk with me. His eyes were puffed up from crying ..." we usually perk up our ears with similar expectation of receiving something of intrinsic interest. And often we find that hours later we can recall the narrative. Such is the appeal and the impact of stories which contain interesting characterization, perilous situation, action, conflict, suspense, anticipation, climax, resolution, and the like.

If we look for features in the activities which typically accompany the learning and performing of such scripts, we might note such things as the common dramatic projection of imagery through marked non-verbal means (facial and other kinesic—and even pictorial—expressions), as well as through marked verbal means (animation, accent changes, voice exaggeration and modulation—even "sing-song" effect—and the like).

And if we look also for features in the circumstances that invite such scripts to be performed, we might note that usually they are cued in the context of play, of casual, friendly get-togethers, of games or spare-time activities. Obviously they serve a different purpose than "serious" speech acts which are intended to negotiate something, e.g. ask for information, apologize, order food, or the like. The kinds of non-casual speech focused on here are certainly not the usual "English for Special Purposes" fare. They are not "let's-get-down-to-business" pieces. Quite the opposite. Yet, though they are not "serious", they are by no means superfluous. In fact, the ability to use appropriately such texts as these is as much a part of being human as engaging in other more "serious" kinds of social intercourse.

The above observations on the learnability and survivability of non-casual texts should catch the attention of any teacher interested in promoting efficient learning. After all, if certain kinds of text have properties which are known to enable learners to pick them up much more efficiently than others, that should be a matter of considerable interest to us. Are we not constantly looking for ways to render learning easier, more efficient and attractive?

### A Swedish example

I am suggesting that much of what we find in language classrooms and language course materials disregards the properties both of texts and of learning or memory. Fortunately, there are exceptions. Just recently my attention was captured by a 1940's vintage college-level textbook entitled *First Swedish Book* by Björkhagen, lecturer in Swedish at the University of London. Obviously not concerned immediately with modelling conversation, the author presents the language to the adult English learner through simple but artful pieces. The first piece to appear in the book, for example, is the following:

H *The key of the King's kingdom*

Here is the key of the King's kingdom.
In that kingdom there is a town.
In that town there is a street.
By that street there is a lane.
In that lane there is a garden.
In that garden there is a house.
In that house there is a room.
In that room there is a vase.
In that vase there are flowers.

Flowers in the vase,
the vase in the room,
the room in the house,
the house in the garden,
the garden in the lane,
the lane by the street,
the street in the town,
the town in the kingdom,
and here is the key of the King's kingdom.

A quick comparison of H with A–C reveals such differences as that H is relatively long and contains a relatively large number of picturable nouns, yet its grammatical and rhetorical structure is extremely simple. More importantly for learners, this piece—as any other piece of art—is calculated to excite an emotional response. Artless chunks of dialogue or insipid chunks of prose designed simply to put words and structures before the eyes of the student rarely achieve emotional impact. Furthermore, H is a whole piece, with resolution, closure. Its parts are logically integrated and structurally knit together in a way that facilitates the process of acquisition, storage and retrieval of information. So transparent is its organization that one can reconstruct it from memory after a single reading. One can imagine a kind of Cloze exercise with it, in which, with the help of pictures, the blanked out words can easily be replaced by the students.

Here is the … of the …'s kingdom.
In that … there is a town.
… … … there is a street.
By … … … … … lane.
In … … … … … garden.
… … … … … … … ….
Etc.

Like a first piano piece one learns to play, this piece invites solo performance, repeated performance. Unlike scales or random chords which, no matter how skilfully played, communicate nothing of particular interest, this piece belongs in the repertoire of compositions worth playing for one's own pleasure or to an audience. It is like a flower, worthy of plucking and enjoying and even displaying in a vase. Following this most elementary piece, Björkhagen provides a succession of stories, each told in simple fashion, each presenting a gradual progression in vocabulary and syntactic complexity, each containing features which stimulate and facilitate learning, each capable of exciting an emotional response, and each worthy of repeat performances. He gives no apology for using stories to the neglect of conversational stuff. He prefers the art of the storyteller to the artless work of the writer of model dialogues and insipid, colourless textlets that generally inhabited beginning language textbooks in those days.

Looking at Björkhagen's art, one may begin to see that especially in the early stages of teaching a language, language teachers and text developers would do well to consider the emotional impact, the learnability and the survivability of the texts they present. That is, they would do well to make more use of the craft of the storyteller.

If one agrees with this, the next question might be: In the early stages of language study, what can teachers and learners do with stories (that they are not already doing) that will stimulate efficient progress in the language? My answer is that there must be quite a variety of things being done with stories that are not widely known. In the following section some of the less common uses of stories will be discussed.

**The Clockwork Orange Experiment**

I recently read an engaging report by Professor Rudy Lentulay of Johns Hopkins University, who was invited to teach a class in Russian for twenty minutes a day, two days a week, to six-year old children. Lacking any previous experience of teaching small children, he was hesitant to accept the invitation. For one thing, he wondered what children could learn of a language under such a limited schedule? Perhaps over weeks and months they could learn to count to ten, name the months of the year and some parts of the body, sing a couple of songs, and say hello and goodbye. But he was not satisfied with that and he did not see how he could keep little children entertained with such unmotivated memorization. He had just finished reading Anthony Burgess' novel *Clockwork Orange*, in which teenagers use almost 200 slang words—all of them Russian words. The reader, as well as the teenagers in the story, must learn the meaning of these words from context. From this was born an idea to make a game out of learning Russian, a word game that even small children could play. So Lentulay accepted the job.

From the first day he made story telling the focus of the course. Each week he told a story with Russian words sprinkled here and there—at first sparsely, then gradually more and more abundantly, each story using as much as possible of the vocabulary and grammar employed in previous stories. Since the learners were children just beginning first grade, nothing was written for them in English or Russian. They had to get the words and their meanings not through translation but only through visual and verbal context. However, to enable the present reader who may not know Russian to follow the story and to grasp the magnitude of the task this extraordinary teacher attempted during those first two brief classes, we provide a list of the Russian words and phrases used in the story.

| | |
|---|---|
| *Da* | yes |
| *Okno* | window |
| *Mjach* | ball |
| *Dom-Doma* | house-houses |
| *Djevochka-Djevochki* | girl-girls |
| *Babushka-Babushki* | granny-grannies |
| *Trubka-Trubki* | chimney-chimneys |
| *Mama-Mamy* | mother-mothers |
| *Uzhasno*! | terrible! |
| *Eto* ... | This is a ... |
| *Eto* ... *Ili* ...? | Is this a ... or a ...? |
| *Njet* | no |
| *Dvjer-Dvjeri* | door-doors |
| *Ulitsa* | street |
| *Ruka-Ruki* | hand-hands |
| *Malchik-Malchiki* | boy-boys |
| *Chelovjek-Chelovjeki* | man-men |
| *Roditjeli* | parents |
| *Papa-Papy* | father-fathers |
| *Shto eto*? | What's this? |
| *Gdje* ...? | Where is the ...? |
| *Vot* ... | Here is the ... |
| *Eto* ..., *da*? | This is a ..., right? |

Each Russian word was introduced in multiple contexts. For example, on introducing the word *okno*, he would not give its English translation, but rather would point to a window and say such things as: "Look out the *okno*. This is an *okno* and that is an *okno* too, isn't it? Johnny, go over and touch the *okno*. Mary, can you point to the *okno*? Count every *okno* in the classroom. How many do you see? Can you find a picture of an *okno* in the room? What is an *okno* made of?" And similarly with three or four other words such as *malchik* (boy), *djevochka* (girl), words that would be part of the story. Here is a picture of a *djevochka*, a very pretty *djevochka* in a red dress. And here is a *malchik*. The *malchik* is running. Ann, are you a *malchik* or a *djevochka*? How about Alan, is he a *malchik* or a *djevochka*? Lisa, what is the name of the *malchik* sitting there by the *okno*?

Thus with skilful use of verbal and non-verbal context, the teacher engaged these young learners in playful but meaningful use of some of the new expressions. The children were expected to adopt it and substitute each new expression for its English equivalent. The "game" was to catch someone using an English word or phrase where the Russian equivalent already put into circulation was called for. Central to the activity was the story, which he began to tell with the aid of simple drawings after introducing only half a dozen words in this fashion.

### A broken *okno*

This is a story about some *malchiki* and *djevochki* and a *mjach* and a broken *okno*, an angry *chelovjek* and a kind *babushka*. What do you suppose happens in the story? One day some *malchiki* and *djevochki* were playing *mjach*. One *malchik* hit the *mjach*. The *mjach* sailed up very high. Here is the *mjach* high in the air. And here is a *dom*. Here is the *dvjer* of the *dom*. Here is the *trubka* of the *dom*. And here is a glass *okno*. Do you think the *mjach* will crash through the *dvjer*? No, the *mjach* won't crash through the *dvjer*. Do you think the *mjach* will come down through the *trubka*? No, the *mjach* won't come down through the *trubka*. Do you think the *mjach* will crash through the glass *okno*? Right.

To keep the new words in circulation, he would later interject questions like the following:

1 Who climbs down the *trubka* of your *dom* and brings you presents?
2 An *okno* is made of glass. Can a *dom* be made of glass, too?
3 Is a *dvjer* sometimes made of glass?
4 What was it that broke the *okno* in the story? Was it a *dvjer* or a *mjach*?
5 If a *mjach* hit a *dvjer*, do you think it would break it?

As Lentulay described it:

> The stories were simple, repetitious and loaded with the vocabulary under study. Designed to run four or five class meetings, (the stories and associated activities) always ended on a high note or a note of suspense. Some ... were taken from Russian folk-tales, others were my own invention, while two of the most popular stories were adaptations of Gogol's *The Nose*, and Pushkin's *The Bronze Horseman*. Songs and poems were frequently incorporated within the framework of the stories ... The last week of class I told them a whole story, entirely in Russian, using most of the vocabulary we had covered.

People familiar with Burling Readers have commented that Lentulay's story telling is simply an "Oral Burling Reader". The idea of it may seem preposterous to the more conventionally minded, but one wonders what kind of success Lentulay might have achieved had he attempted to teach the children the same material within the same amount of time by word list memorization or by pointing and naming and then repetition drill, or by pattern practice, or by any other means. One also wonders how his technique might be used with older learners. But the **Clockwork Orange Experiment** remains as an engaging example of creative teaching with stories.

### Accounts of successful language learners

As a matter of scientific interest, it has been seen necessary to document the language learning success of superior adult language learners in order to secure some measure of what maximum success in language learning is, what the very gifted can achieve under ideal conditions, and how they have gone about the task. Learned journals and other accounts of language learning that are made available to the public will surely contribute to this knowledge.

One person renowned as a "genius" at learning languages, one whose demonstrations of language learning have astounded people all over the world, is Kenneth Pike, Professor Emeritus of Linguistics at the University of Michigan and Senior Linguist of the Summer Institute of Linguistics. A biography of him, *Kenneth L. Pike: Scholar and Christian*, tells of his going into the mountains of Oaxaca, Mexico, as a young Christian missionary in the mid-thirties to live among the Mixtec Indians. In his very early struggles to learn this unwritten language, he learned a very short, simple story about a skunk. He studied it carefully and from it began to figure out the Mixtec way of putting a sentence together. The biographer explains:

> The story he had memorized ... became a tool for making friends. The town president liked that tale so much that he'd walk up to Ken's house just to hear him tell it again. In the market, in the store, wherever Ken went, the fellows would ask him to repeat it for them.
>
> Actually, San Miguel was quite a story-telling community. The men would sit around and tell each other stories, and Ken became one of the main performers. He wrote their tales down and they would shout with laughter when he read them back to them. He found that he had to memorize them to be able to read them in a way that sounded more or less like a Mixtec talking, but it was worth the time it took. It not only helped him to make friends, but it taught him the language.
>
> He told the stories so much that his friends memorized them too. Then whenever Ken, in ordinary conversation, would use a phrase from a story, the men would recognize its origin and roar in approval.
>
> Each new story he learned was regarded as a treasure. Telling Bible stories he described as "just plain fun". Old Narciso, Nalo, and Leto were the ones who listened most frequently. Ken told them, for example, about Gideon's army with its earthenware crocks and torches. When the trumpets sounded, the crocks were broken, the men shouted, and the enemy got scared and ran (Judges 6-7). As Ken's friends listened, their eyes opened wide with amazement. Their reaction thrilled Ken, especially because Narciso wanted to buy a Bible.

Pike is not the only missionary whose genius at language learning was nourished by story telling. Another missionary biography, Burgess' *The small woman* tells the legendary story of Gladys Aylward, an English servant-girl who went on her own to China with hopes of serving the Chinese people as a Christian missionary. By good fortune, Miss Aylward was taken in by an old lady missionary in the mountains of Shansi, where together they established a wayside inn for travelling muleteers. She used her position as a hostess of the inn to learn Chinese—in fact, four dialects of Chinese—in an extraordinarily short time. How she went about doing this is the interesting thing. Almost from the first day, she told Bible stories as the muleteers ate and rested from their day's travel. At first she told only stories of utmost simplicity, or as much as she could learn during the day, but gradually, as her mastery of the language increased, she expanded and elaborated them until she could tell them well in all the dialects. (Of course this was not all she did in learning the language, but this is the part the biography focused on.)

## An approach to language learning that incorporates story telling

I am excited about an approach to language learning of which I became aware only recently. It is particularly interesting to me because it takes into account many things about language learning that are not often recognized in language classrooms. Developed by Brewster and Brewster and set forth in their book *Language acquisition made possible* (nicknamed LAMP), the approach is built on the foundational principle that, at least for people taking up or intending to take up residence in a foreign country, language learning involves joining a new social group. The main challenge is not "How do I learn a language?" but "How do I join a social group in a foreign culture?" The approach lays great stress on the fact that normal language acquisition is a social, not an academic activity, and that if we ignore the natural forces that shape language we may cause a pathology of results that is typical of language learned in classrooms. Social factors tower over cognitive, biological, instructional ones. A teacher's or a learner's preoccupation with the linguistic end of language is one of the things that often gets in the way of the natural forces of the mind, the personality and the socializing drives that shape language. In other words, such an approach goes counter to fundamental facts about language acquisition. The challenge then is to encourage and utilize to the fullest extent possible the intuitive abilities of the mind to absorb a language in a natural, functional way, through engaging in communicative activities that lead to socialization into a new society and culture.

In the LAMP approach, the learner uses stories and the telling of stories to help establish social relationships with people in the new language community. Story telling and the forming of bonds with native speakers in the society provide the driving mechanism of this approach to language learning. Learners must find speakers of the language they intend to learn, and use the language learning situation itself to find friends among these people. Perhaps the first day he can learn to say only:

Hello.
I am learning (language).
I am learning to tell a story.
This is all I can say.
Till tomorrow.

His goal from the very first day is to meet people, in shops, homes, wherever he can find a comfortable moment to reach out to them. With each contact, he says what he has prepared to say in the language. The next day he can perhaps add the first part of a simple story. For example:

Hello.
I am learning to tell a story.
Can I tell it to you?
Once there was an old man.
He was very lonely ...
That is all I know so far.
I'll tell you more tomorrow.
Goodbye.

This is of course a very gross characterization of what the LAMP approach entails, but it is enough to give an idea of the principles that motivate it and of its initial steps and direction. LAMP explains in detail how the learner can go about preparing to meet people and tell stories. Obviously if the programme is carried out, within a few days a learner has met many people, told a story many times, each day with increasing complexity and skill, and perhaps started on a second story. One can safely assume that Björkhagen, Pike and Aylward would agree with the basic principles underlying the LAMP approach.

## Conclusion

In the recent history of language teaching, we are keenly aware of hearing the advice of experts in different fields suggesting ways to improve language teaching. The descriptive linguist advised: "Look to a better description of the structure of language." The expert in instructional principles advised: "Look to the principles of instruction." The communicative syllabus proponent advised: "Look to teaching strategies and techniques that stress meaning rather than form." The neurolinguist advised: "Look to see how language is organized in the brain and processed by the brain." The expert in child language development advised: "Look to the natural model of child language acquisition." The humanist advised: "Teach the whole man."

All of these, and many others, of course, have given sound advice. And in designing curricula for academic language study, language teachers have tried to respond to the logic and persuasion of each of these. We have tried to improve our sequencing and explanation of linguistic structure, we have tried to incorporate sound principles of instruction without losing sight of the cognitive and other human parameters of the learner. We have experimented with sundry strategies and techniques, each founded on a different mix of ideas and principles. And still we seek a better understanding of language learning and we know there is much more we must learn and do if we are to find more effective ways of bringing it about.

The questions always tease us: What else can we do in our language instruction programmes beyond, or beside, what we are already doing, to promote more efficient learning for more learners? What principles, beyond or besides those we now base our teaching on, should guide our language instruction? This paper does not set forth a new synthesis nor promise a better solution. As I have emphasized, what is treated herein is nothing new. I have considered stories and their telling as part of language teaching and language learning at the first level, suggesting that perhaps we are neglecting a powerful tool our predecessors used with success, and cautioning that in our preoccupation with communicative competence we may be becoming too concerned too early with getting down to the business of induction into conversational speech. I have proposed that language teachers and learners give stories and story telling a more prominent place and perhaps a different treatment in their programmes of instruction and learning than they have been giving them of late. I have tried to show reasons for my conclusion that in non-casual texts and associated activities we may find, as some of our predecessors did, a more effective means of getting at real, heart-felt, functional communication in a foreign language than through a direct attack on the improvised speech of conversation. And I have brought attention to how some have found in stories and story telling a driving mechanism of natural language acquisition, a key that can release the intuitive faculties of the mind and the socializing drives that shape language and lead to joining a social group in a foreign culture, forming bonds with native speakers in the society.

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> *The manner of speaking is full as important as the matter, as more people have ears to be tickled, than understanding to judge.*
>
> *– Lord Chesterfield*

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# Holistic methods of foreign-language instruction as precursors of a renewed interest in the theatre arts for language teaching

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During the last fifteen years new methods of teaching have been introduced to the foreign language teacher who was raised on an audiolingual diet. These teachers prefer teaching to learning, because teaching a subject in accordance with acknowledged tricks of the trade is what teachers are there for. Unfortunately, words such as teaching, learning and method have been semantically disappropriated during the period of change. The audiolinguist conceived teaching as a series of steps anchored in the logic of behaviourism, while to the methodologist of today teaching seems to be more or less identical with waiting for learning to happen. The author gives brief descriptions of some methodologies, establishes the metaphor of theatre arts as a suitable denominator for all holistic methods and presents arguments in favour of a revival of the theatre arts as a means of promoting foreign language learning.

Gedurende die laaste vyftien jaar is verskeie nuwe metodes vir die aanleer van vreemde tale bekendgestel. Vir die onderwyser in vreemde tale wat nog opgegroei het in 'n oudiolinguale atmosfeer is dit uiteraard vreemd. Hierdie onderwysers het nog onderrig verkies eerder as aanleer. Die onderrig van 'n vak in ooreenstemming met erkende kunsgrepe is immers waarvoor onderwysers daar is. Gedurende die periode van verandering is daar egter op semantiese vlak 'n vraagteken geplaas oor woorde soos "onderrig", "aanleer" en "metode". Vir die oudiolinguis is onderrig 'n reeks stappe wat vloei uit die logika van die behaviorisme, terwyl die metodoloog van vandag onderrig eerder sien as 'n wagproses op *leer* om te gebeur. Die outeur gee kort beskrywings van sekere metodes, hy beklemtoon die uitvoerende kunste as toepaslike gemene deler vir alle holistiese metodes en hy bepleit 'n herlewing van die teaterkunste as 'n manier om die aanleer van vreemde tale te bevorder.

## 1 Introduction

During the last fifteen years or so, new methods of foreign-language instruction have almost imperceptibly crept upon the foreign-language teacher who was raised on an audiolingual diet. Their common credo is the subservience of teaching to learning. This may sound commonplace and self-evident; after all, teaching a subject in accordance with the acknowledged "tricks" of the trade so that pupils may easily identify, process and store the information presented, is what the teacher is there for. Unfortunately, words like "teaching", "learning" and "method" have been semantically disappropriated during this period of change. True, it is not unusual for words to be situated on a cline: the audiolingualist conceived of teaching as a series of steps anchored in the logic of behaviourism, whereas to the fringe methodologist of today teaching seems to be more or less identical with waiting for learning to happen. But one has to be aware of the possibility of such a slow depletion of words, in order not to be deceived by them. As long as teaching and method are conceived of as dependent variables, with a theory of learning or acquiring language as the point of departure, discredit to the learning theory entails that of its satellite methods.

The classic case is Chomsky's review of Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* in 1959. The linguist demonstrated to the behaviourist that the latter's conception of how language is acquired under normal (i.e. untutored) circumstances was invalid. Because of their assumed unconditional interrelatedness both learning theory and teaching method collapsed and nothing was placed in their stead. Once the theoretical props were gone, "learning" relapsed into chaos, and teaching became almost meaningless. With teachers afraid of asserting themselves the learners moved further up-stage. They advanced to the centre of interest and became the primary focus of language acquisition research.

Although an enormous amount of time, money and intellectual effort (Brown 1973; Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982; Felix 1980; Felix 1982; Hatch 1978; Wode 1981) has been invested since the late 1960's the results obtained so far have not carried enough conviction to bring about another paradigm change. At the same time people like Charles A. Curran (*Counseling-Learning*), Caleb Gattegno (*The Silent Way*), Georgi Lozanov (*Suggestopedia*) and J.J. Asher (*Total Physical Response*) started filling the void left by research, or the lack of it, rather, with unconventional ideas of their own on how foreign languages should be taught. In what follows I shall give brief descriptions of these fringe methodologies, establish the metaphor of histrionics or theatre arts as a suitable common denominator for all holistic methods and present arguments in favour of a revival of the theatre arts as a means of promoting foreign-language learning.

## 2 Holistic methods of foreign-language teaching

The word "holistic" is derived from the Greek word "holos", meaning "whole", wherefore some people spell it as "wholistic". The idea is that the process of learning must involve the learner as a totality, an ensemble of intellect, volition and emotion. Relatively short descriptions of how the various methods aim at total learning are in order here, because the aim is not to proselytize, but to argue that alternative methods should be seen as stepping stones on the way to a personality-shaping technique of great value: theatrical performances in the foreign-language class.

### 2.1 Suggestopedia

Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychiatrist, who has laid down the principles of Suggestopedia in his authoritative *Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy* (1978), conceives of man as consisting of two planes. The surface plane is what language teachers normally address themselves to. Below the surface lies a vast reservoir of learning potential which must be tapped. In order to do this students entering a language class assume surrogate identities: they become Dr. Morgan or Miss Pringle, "masks", as Earl Stevick (1980) says, "to hide behind" (236). This helps them to cast off their everyday personalities with all the incumbent norms of society which hold learning back. Once the protective mail people tend to surround themselves with has been discarded by means of "desuggestion" the learner is open to suggestions by the teacher that he can learn faster and memorize better than previously assumed.

### 2.2 The silent way

To describe what the thinking of Caleb Gattegno, inventor of The Silent Way, is about, Stevick (1980) comes up with the following: "In Gattegno's view, as I have read him, the Actor is the Self, the Stage is the whole world outside the Self, and the Play is limited in Time" (37). On the level of actual technique this philosophical credo manifests itself in a teacher who remains silent most of the time. His job is to tease out the student's learning capacity. To put it the other way round: "the teacher is potentially very useful, but is not absolutely necessary" (Stevick 1980:45). He may place a handful of coloured rods on the table, to begin with, pick one out, motion to the students to be silent, pronounce the foreign word associated with the object once and direct the students to repeat. The important thing here is that the content of pieces, that the teacher refrains from ostensibly reinforcing correct answers so that the student gets a "feel" for when he is right or wrong, that, in other words, he gains self-confidence and learns to trust himself.

### 2.3 **Community language learning (CLL)**

Charles Curran, the originator of Community Language Learning, calls his technique a "whole-person model". The community of learners/clients sit in a circle facing each other, whereas the teacher/counsellor remains outside. The students in the circle are allowed to say whatever comes to mind in their native language, whereupon the counsellor provides the target equivalents for imitation/repetition. As a rule, the target-language utterances are recorded for later inspection. It is hoped that the learners do not look upon what they say as verbal chains only; instead the teacher takes great care (this includes the way he dresses) to ensure that his clientele looks upon learning as persons or, as one put it, "that the skeleton (bare bones grammar) of a new language is loveable only when encased in a warm body—first, in that of the teacher-counsellor and then, as the learners grow in linguistic independence and peer interdependence, in the body of the learning community" (Dutra 1980:144).

### 2.4 **Total physical response**

The method of Total Physical Response is the invention of the psychologist J.J. Asher. It does what it says: Teachers give commands in the foreign language, students execute these commands, i.e. they respond physically by e.g. writing the word "Luke" on the board in response to the teacher's "Luke, walk to the door! When Luke walks to the door, Maria *will* write Luke's name on the chalkboard." In this instance, the teaching aim obviously is the simple future of English verbs. The rationale behind this technique is the assumption that learning a language involves, should involve both body and mind. Students and teachers alike *perform* the actions described by the verbal expressions.

## 3 **A metaphor for holistic teaching methods**

Earl Stevick, an expert on holistic, sometimes called humanistic teaching methods (The Brit-British Council 1982), has done much to popularize these approaches. His *Teaching languages—a way and ways* is the locus classicus of the alternative movements. In describing the brainchildren of Lozanov, Gattegno and Curran (for some unknown reason J.J. Asher was excluded) Stevick frequently, but maybe unconsciously, reverts to the word "trick" when method is what he means. It might be insightful to count the frequency of occurrence of this lexical item throughout the more than 300 pages the book consists of. I should also like to submit that if a metaphor was needed for the four holistic methods just described *theatre* would do (on the concept of metaphor in foreign-language teaching methodology see Nattinger 1984).

In a readable article Mumeo Yoshikawa has pointed out that despite glaring surface dissimilarities between, say, The Silent Way and Total Physical Response, an undercurrent of shared convictions binds all holistic methods together: "... what is considered essential and crucial may be viewed not so much as a specific method or technique per se, but as a real understanding of the new perspective on a holistic individual. Without understanding this assumption of the holistic individual as essentially an active, voluntary, responsible, self-motivating, relational, autonomous, and free being, mere methodologies or techniques are reduced to artificial and mechanical schemes that fail to be meaningful" (Yoshikawa 1982:394). John Norrish, in a recent survey article, has arrived at the same conclusion: "Perhaps the most obvious common factor in all three methodologies is that in all of them, the learner is regarded as central to the process" (Norrish 1985:13). Of course, he is, and one might even venture to say that the silent teacher who merely presents the matter and waits for learning to occur is the epitome of the new wave.

It is this element of distrust of both teacher and method and a preference for "tricks" in order to heal the student personality which is normally split into conscious and unconscious, body and mind, and to make him whole again, which makes me suggest that theatre is the right metaphor and the right method to bring about this reintegration. In the words of Susan Stern: "Drama techniques restore the body and emotions to language learning, thereby restoring motivation" (Stern 1981:79). And the foreign-language teacher who role-plays with the students in his beginners class already holds Ariadne's thread to creative dramatics in his hands. All he has to do is to wind it up and, to borrow from Andrew Marvell, roll it into one ball.

## 4 From role-play to creative dramatics to communicative competence

Books on role-play are legion (e.g. Kleppin 1980; Lee 1965; Maley and Duff 1978). Role-play is the icing on the grammatical exercise cake which represents the bulk of all classroom activities. Traditionally, the role of role-playing here is to loosen the students' tongues, to oil their articulatory machinery and to increase motivation by driving the rule-governed aspect of language learning to the far end of consciousness. Those who, unlike Stephen Krashen, believe in the interpenetrability of the two systems which according to him constitute man's language learning capacity, would maintain that the business of role-playing is to bridge the gulf that separates acquisition from learning.

Role-playing is the closest one can hope to get to real-life situations. As Morry van Ments says in a recent monograph: "... the 'acting out' in role-playing is, for all practical purposes, no greater than that which is done by the majority of people from time to time in the course of their everyday lives" (20). At the same time van Ments deplores "the unfortunate confusion between role-playing and acting" (19) insisting that the essential difference between the two is "that acting consists of bringing to life a dramatist's ideas (or one's own ideas) in order to influence and entertain an audience, whereas role-play is the experiencing of a problem under an unfamiliar set of constraints in order that one's own ideas may emerge and one's understanding increase" (19). Such a definition unwittingly pays homage to the high degree of similarity between role-play and acting, for an unsophisticated spectator is usually unable to tell the one from the other. If one looks upon role-play as an element in mother-tongue teaching or in connection with second-language acquisition as distinct from foreign-language learning, role-play is indeed an extension of everyday life. But look at role-play from the vantage point of the foreign-language teacher and the differences come to light immediately. Encapsulated in foreign-language role-play is a strong histrionic element. In its early phases role-playing in a foreign-language class is a theatrical performance: students learn dialogue parts by heart and act them out in front of their classmates with imaginary backdrops of zoos, restaurants and surgeries behind them. If expressions of self intrude in such play-acting, there is always the danger of cross-cultural interference or negative transfer from source culture behavioural patterns.

A student who reproduces a professional playwright's words is closer to the foreign culture than the one who merely uses a foreign idiom to express roles which are part of the social environment he was brought up in. An American daddy looks and behaves differently from his Japanese counterpart, and the Japanese student of English as a foreign language who is called in front of a crowd of 30 or more classmates will gratefully fall back on the wordage provided by course book or actor's cue card.

Admittedly, it is a long way from play-acting/ role-playing to creatively using a foreign idiom; more often than not such a feat is achieved only after an extensive stay in the country where the language is spoken. But there can be no question that Erminio G. Neglia is right when he says about play-acting: "Students are asked to project themselves into the roles of native speakers in a staged second-language environment" (694). And he is also right about the way eventual success is achieved: "Countless drills on pronunciation and intonation have made them, /the student/ perhaps for the first time in their college life, as fluent and confident in their command of the language (although limited to the dramatic dialogues and situations of the plays) as native speakers" (696).

But are they really limited to the dramatic dialogues and situations of the plays?

"Limited" would seem to be the wrong tag in connection with dramatic dialogues. Only in a very narrow sense are students limited to the syntactic and lexical choices made for them by the playwright. The characters they impersonate live a richer life than most of us; they hate and love more intensively than those in the pit; their (stage) lives are spent within two to three hours. The actors are bound to profit spiritually from the characters in the play.

And as far as the psycholinguistic side is concerned, Susan L. Stern has established that drama facilitates communication among L2 learners. She hypothesized that heightened self-esteem, motivation to learn and spontaneity as well as an increased capacity for empathy and a lowered sensitivity to rejection would result from active participation in creative drama. These factors in turn tend to facilitate communication so that it can be said with no small amount of confidence that creative dramatics are a spiritually rewarding detour to communicative competence, which is the first aim of all foreign-language teaching.

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> *It is the darling delusion of mankind that the world is progressive in religion, toleration, freedom, as it is progressive in machinery.*
>
> *– Moncure D. Conway*

> *The style of an author should be the image of his mind, but the choice and command of language is the fruit of exercise.*
>
> *– Edward Gibbon*

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# Arabic and Urdu in International Perspectives

Syed Habibul Haq Nadvi

This paper gives an overview of the development of Arabic and Urdu in South Africa up to 1984 when Indian languages as a school subject were introduced from standards two to ten. It sketches the state of Indian languages at the various universities in the country and proceeds to place these languages in an international perspective. From the article it becomes clear that Arabic cannot be ignored by any scholar **who** seriously intends to probe the problems of our times. In the last instance, the article focuses on South Africa again, where Urdu, in particular, is flourishing, and where several poets have earned widespread acclaim. It concludes that the future of Urdu in this country has never been brighter.

Met hierdie artikel word 'n oorsig gegee oor die ontwikkeling van Arabies en Urdu in Suid-Afrika, tot en met die instelling in 1984 van Indiese tale as skoolvak vanaf standerd twee tot matriek. Die stand van hierdie tale aan verskeie plaaslike universiteite word geskets en daarna word die Indiese tale binne 'n internasionale perspektief geplaas. Die artikel stel dit dat 'n kennis van Arabies onontbeerlik is vir enige geleerde wat werklik die probleme van ons tyd wil deurvors. In laaste instansie keer die perspektief terug na Suid-Afrika, waar veral Urdu sterk groei en waar verskeie digters wye erkenning geniet. Die gevolgtrekking is dat die toekoms van Urdu hier te lande nog nooit beter was nie.

## Introduction of Arabic and Urdu from standards two to matriculation and the dimensions of linguistic dispensation

The future of Arabic and Urdu seems to be as bright in South Africa as it is in any part of the world. The language dispensation granted by the Department of Education, Indian Affairs, in order to protect the cultural and linguistic identities of the various Indian communities as well as to safeguard the rights of minorities will have far-reaching effects on the future development of the Indo-Pak culture in South Africa. It is bound to lead to intensified research in these languages and will formulate the socio-linguistic and audio-lingual programmes among the Indian communities in South Africa. These will include the use of teaching aids, mobile language laboratories, the compilation of textbooks conducive to South African situations, and above all the involvement of the Media in language teaching. There will have to be teacher training crash courses and adult education programmes, and finally the religio-cultural and socio-economic motivations of the Indian children who are going to opt for any of the five languages that have been introduced from standards two to five and onwards from January 1984.

The Arabic and Urdu languages, already popular with the community, will receive an additional boost. Arabic is not only the language of the Middle East and of the Arab World, but it is also the second language of the entire Muslim World, where Arabic is taught and learned for understanding the Holy Qur'an and the Sunna. Moreover, the current political situation in the Middle East cannot be comprehended either by a European or an Eastern scholar without a knowledge of Arabic.

No different is the case with Urdu, the third largest spoken language of the world, which comes after Chinese and English (*Encyclopaedia Brittanica*, Vol. XI, 1968:463). It is the official language of Pakistan and is spoken, not only in India and Bangladesh, but also in the furthest corners of the world where people of Indo-Pak origin have settled. It is now being taught in Europe and America and universities have established Departments of Urdu for an understanding of the Indo-Pak civilization and its impact on the cultures of the world.

The teaching of Indian languages from grass-root levels will, consequently, create, among the Indo-Pak population of South Africa, an awareness of their rich cultural heritage and will arouse among the South African Europeans or various Asian populations, curiosity to know the splendours of the Indo-Pak civilization. The move of the Department of Education, which convened various meetings to discuss the subject, is, therefore, commendable.

A joint meeting of subject-committees for Indian languages was held in Durban in 1983. The chairman of the committee, Mr C.A. Naguran, the Chief Educational Planner, addressing the representatives of subject-committees, such as Gujarati, Hindi, Tamil, Telegu, Urdu and Arabic, outlined the purpose and the functions of the subject committees and asked the members of the committees to make recommendations to the Director of Education on all aspects pertinent to the subject. Mr E. Osman, the chairman of the subject committee, made it clear that the subject committees were constituted from purely professional personnel and certain members of the community had been included to safeguard the wider interest of the community. It was disclosed that the Indian languages from standards two to five would remain non-examination subjects and would be offered at Indian Schools subject to certain conditions. The ever-growing enrolment of students in the Department of Arabic, Urdu and Persian at the University of Durban-Westville was referred to as indicative of the increasing interest among Indian students in their languages. The problems of crash courses for teacher trainees were also discussed. The subject committees were authorized to draft and finalize the syllabuses as well as to recommend suitable text-books and reference books produced by local scholars to avoid the high cost of imported books.
I was invited as a representative of Arabic and Urdu and was asked to prepare syllabi for the two languages. I suggested that Indian languages be treated as examination subjects as soon as was practicable. Mr Ebrahim Osman, the chairman of Arabic, Gujarati and Urdu, gave the necessary directions to the subject committees for Arabic and for Urdu. The basic structure of the Arabic syllabus was accepted and approved by the subject committee meetings in 1983. The Urdu syllabus was also accepted in principle. Details are still to be worked out.

It must be borne in mind that Arabic is neither an Indian language nor does it belong to the family of Aryan languages. It is purely a Semitic language. Since it is the language of the Qur'an, the Holy Book of the Muslims, it has become, religiously speaking, the lingua franca of the non-Arabic speaking Muslim World.

Arabic, as a subject in the primary school, was first introduced in the Orient Islamic Secondary School in Durban in 1975. Since there was no syllabus available, the UNISA Arabic 1 Course of 1973 was used. The course was naturally too advanced for the students and had to be simplified. The first batch of students sat for the matriculation examination in 1979.

The Department of Arabic, Urdu and Persian has given all its support and guidance to the Department of Education since 1975. I came to South Africa as a visiting lecturer and was invited by the Department of Education, Indian Affairs, to take part in the discussion with regard to the introduction and promotion of Arabic and to frame its syllabus. The syllabus was drafted and was submitted to the Department. It was approved with modifications and came into force in April 1976. It is still in operation, but is under revision.

Arabic was being offered at the University of Durban-Westville even before its introduction in the schools. There were 35 students in the Department in 1976. The Institute for Arabic and Islamic Research was founded in 1976 in order to create greater awareness among the community for the promotion of the Department and its languages (*Arabic Studies*, Vol. (2):1, Dec. 1978, p. 114).

An interview was arranged with Prof. R. van der Ross, Rector of the University of the Western Cape in 1977, in order to discuss the promotion of Arabic at this University. It was suggested by me that a fully-fledged Department of Arabic and Islamic Studies, independent of the Semitic Department, be founded. At the request of the Rector, I submitted a memorandum with regard to the introduction of Arabic II and its separation from the Department of Semitics (*Arabic Studies*, Vol. (2):1, December 1978, pp. 119–120). Similar suggestions were made to Prof. J.S. Cumsty, the Head of the Department of Religious Studies at the University of Cape Town (*Arabic Studies*, Vol. (2):1, December 1978, p. 120). At the invitation of Prof. Cumsty, ten lectures were delivered at the University of Cape Town on the eve of its 150th Jubilee Celebrations during 1979. Three lectures were delivered at the University of the Witwatersrand and a similar suggestion was made to the Vice-Chancellor of the University, Prof. D.J. du Plessis. In order to create greater awareness among the community, questionnaires were also circulated. The motivational lectures and endeavours reached their climax when the Department organized the Iqbal Centennial Celebrations from 28th to 30th April, 1978, and invited national delegates from three provinces to read their research papers. The resolution passed at the conclusion of the conference demanded that Urdu be approved as one of the elective subjects and be promoted at all levels of education in the Republic (*Arabic Studies*, Vol. (2):1, Dec. 1978, p. 116). It was also recommended that national conventions and conferences be convened from time to time in order to revive interest in the cultures and the languages of the Indo-Pak subcontinent. Having received a wider appreciation for the works and the contributions of the Department from both the University and the community, the writer prepared a blueprint to develop the Department into a fully-fledged Faculty of Near Eastern Studies. Due to financial limitations the plan did not materialize.

The syllabi of the courses in the Department were drafted afresh in 1977 when teaching aids and technical methods were introduced and when the use of the language laboratory was made compulsory. No syllabus is immutable. It accepts the challenges of the time. Keeping the contemporary progress and changes in mind, a fresh syllabus was again prepared by the Department in 1983 for introduction either from 1984 or 1985. Since such changes and modifications attract more students, the enrolment in the Department rose quite high, that is, from 41 in 1976 to about 300 in 1983.

In order to promote research and intellectual activities in the Department, *Arabic Studies*, an annual research journal, was published in 1976. Many publications under the auspices of the Department have so far appeared. Text-books in Arabic and Urdu were made available and accessible to students. It was on the eve of the First World Congress on Muslim Education, held in Mecca in 1978, that I met Professor Ameen al-Misri at the Medina University and obtained his permission to reproduce his series of books entitled *Tariqa al-Jadidia*, especially written for the non-Arab speaking Pakistanis. Permission was granted subject only to the condition that it was not to be produced for commercial purposes. Fortunately the book was reproduced in Durban by the Arabic Study Circle through the good offices of the late Dr A.M. Moola.

After these introductory remarks, a look at the expanding horizons of the Arabic and Urdu languages in international perspectives might serve some purpose.

## 2 Impact of Arabic on literary culture

The Arabic language can be compared to a pool of water in the Arabian peninsula.

Many people regard the Qur'an merely as a liturgical Book, used only for prayers and invocations. The fact is that the Qur'an has influenced the course of both the liturgical studies as well as the literary cultures of various nations. The Orientalists, despite their bias against Islam and the Qur'an, have realized the significance of the Qur'an and its Arabic language.

## 2.1 The European scene

A knowledge of the Arabic language is considered essential for a better understanding of the Bible and the Torah (New and Old Testaments). Scholars of scriptures in the West felt the need for learning the Arabic language for an interpretation of the scriptures. The first famous man who produced his research works on this topic was Albert Schulton (1686 – 1750), a Dutch scholar who wrote his thesis in 1707 entitled: *The use of Arabic in the interpretation of Scriptures*. Edward Peacock and W. Robertson in England and J. Welhausen in Germany studied the scripture in the same light. The Jews and Christians living in the Arabian peninsula composed poetry and prose in Arabic. Their compositions are still considered as some of the best models of classical Arabic literature. The early translation of the Bible into Arabic, now extant in the Vatican, cannot be studied, compared or adjudged analytically without a knowledge of Arabic. According to Otto Jesperson, the Romance languages in Europe are greatly indebted to Arabic. The interest of the Spanish Christians in Arabic is proverbial. Reverend Alvaro, the Pope of Cordova, once complained that young Christians were so fond of the Arabic language, its style and diction, that they preferred to write letters to their friends in Arabic, rather than in Latin. They even excelled their Arab counterparts in prose and poetic styles and diction (D. Dozy, *History des Musulmans de Spagni*, Vol. II, p. 103).

The Jews, like the Christians, were fond of the Arabic language. The language of the medieval Jews, right from Baghdad through Morocco and Spain, was Arabic. It was only second to their vernacular. Jewish temples in Toledo would announce their religious programmes in Arabic. Medieval Jewish literature—the greater portion of it, if not all—was written according to Arabic metrical patterns. (*Jewish Encyclopaedia*, New York, 1901, Vol. II, p. 50).

D.B. Macdonald, in his *The Hebrew Literary Genius*, (1933:26), says that Hebrew literature from the beginning to the present, has been under the influence of Arabic in terms of form and matter. A student of comparative literature is well aware of these facts. Even the history of modern science cannot be studied without a knowledge of Arabic. Professor George Sarton of Harvard University professes that the history of modern science will remain incomplete without a knowledge of Arabic. Since all medieval sciences started with the Arabs, the knowledge of Arabic is a sine-qua-non for scientists. Professor Sarton himself went to Syria to learn Arabic for his research.

The mundane and the supramundane significance of the Arabic language, developed by the Qur'an, compelled the scholars of Arabic to revise their stand on the subject. Now they hold that a study of the socio-economic conditions of the Middle East is not possible without a knowledge of Arabic. Moreover, the rising Third World and the petro-dollar economy of the world has revived the Arabic language to an extent that international oil companies and firms, trade and commercial centres, banks, engineers and medical doctors, diplomatic sources, etc., are compelled to acquire a knowledge of Arabic prior to their entry into Arab countries.

Among the great scholars of contemporary Europe there are many who realize the significance of Arabic. They hold that a historical, literary, economic and political study of any Arab country and its culture is not possible without a knowledge of the primary sources written in its own original language, that is, Arabic. Four of these scholars merit special mention:

– Prof. H.A.R. Gibb, an English academic, in his essays Studies in contemporary Arabic Literature, *Bulletin of School of Oriental Studies*, Pt IV, 1928.

– Prof. S. Kampffmeyer, a German academic, in his essay Die Anfänge einer Geschichte der neueren Arabischen Literatur in *Mitteilungen des Seminars für Orientalische Sprachen* XXXI, 1928, p. 170–77.

– Prof. I.J. Karackovsky, a Russian academic, in his article Proben der Neu-Arabischen Literatur in *Mitteilungen des Seminars für Orientalische Sprachen* XXXI, 1928, p. 180–99.

– Prof. Nallino, an Italian academic and Prof. Huart, a French academic, in their books, and a German academic, C. Brockelmann in his *Geschichte der Arabischen Literatur*, Suppl. III, 1924. In chapter four the significance of Arabic in the modern world is highlighted.

## 2.2 **The South African scene**

The promotion of Arabic in the South African context is equally fascinating. The arrival of Muslims in the country continued from the 17th to the 20th century. With them came the Qur'an. The Muslim scholars wrote on the Qur'anic law or the Shari'a law for the guidance of the community. Such literary endeavours led to the development of "Arabic-Afrikaans" literature in South Africa.

There is a growing realization among South African scholars that a knowledge of Arabic is absolutely essential for the discovery of the rich historical past of South Africa. Hence a series of researches under the caption of "Arabic-Afrikaans" literature was carried out. The following works bear testimony to this:

– Arabies-Afrikaanse Studies 1, 'n tweetalige (Arabies en Afrikaanse) Kategismus, deur A. van Selms, *Mededeelingen der Koninklijke Nederlandse Akademie van Wetenschappen*, Afd. Letterkunde, Amsterdam, 1951. (This is a literary curiosum discovered by Prof. A. van Selms, Head of the Department of Semitology of the University of Pretoria).

– Tuan Guru (d. 1807) who arrived at the Cape in 1771, and wrote his book on the Qur'anic law in 1781. This was the *first written work in the Afrikaans language* in Arabic characters. (It is extant in manuscript form).

– The famous book *al-Qawl al-Matin* is a landmark in "Arabic-Afrikaans" literature. It was the *first book ever printed in Afrikaans* (written in the Afrikaans language with Arabic script). Mr. M.C. Schonegevel of Green Market Square printed it in 1856. Five years later the first book in authentic Afrikaans was published in Roman letters (*The Cape Times*, February 1, 1952, p 9).

– Abu Bakr Effendi (d. 1880), wrote his *Bayan ad-Din* on the Qur'anic or Shari'a law in "Arabic-Afrikaans". It was published in 1874 in the Cape. (E.J. Brill published it in 1971.)

– A first number of a Malay Catechism *Ctablomalien* was printed entirely in the Arabic language by Mr M.C. Schonegevel (the copy is not extant).

– The Turkish Ministry of Education issued an Arabic-written publication in the Cape Malay dialect on Qur'anic law (Constantinople 1877) for the guidance of the community.

– Ahmad Ataullah Effendi, Principal of the Ottoman-Arabic School in Kimberley, edited the *Mahammedan Journal*, a paper started in Kimberley and printed in English and Arabic for the guidance of the community and for the defence of the Sultan of Turkey (*The Natal Mercury*, Sept. 1898, p. 5).

– A periodical, *al-Islam*, was issued in Arabic from 1907 – 1910. (Copies are extant in the Natal archives.)

These facts reveal the truth that Arabic reached the remote Southern tip of Africa and generated the "Arabic-Afrikaans" literary culture. The earliest printings of the Afrikaans language were in Arabic script. George McCall Theal, the most erudite of South African historians, says that the more he delved into the manuscripts at Lisbon and at the Vatican, the more convinced he had become that the Arabic historiographers and geographers were worthy of being studied by the Cape historian (*Cape Times*, February 1926 and *Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies*, Vol. III, part 1, 1933).

Sir Thomas Arnold expressed his conviction about Cape Muslims as follows:

> Very little notice has been taken of those Muslims by European travellers, or even by their co-religionists until recently. (*Preaching of Islam*, London, 1869 p. 284. Second edition 1913, pp. 350 – 2).

### 2.3 The Asian scene: The Persian and Urdu literary culture

The large Arabic element in Persian and Urdu is an indispensable part of those languages. The Arabic words incorporated into the Persian or Urdu languages have become either persianized or urduized. Persian and Urdu literature abound in quotations from Arabic writings, especially from the Qur'an. The formation of the main derivative Arabic forms are used both in Persian and in Urdu. The following books can be consulted for detailed information:

- *Persian Grammar*, by A.K.S. Lambton. Cambridge University Press, 1963. (Especially Part II: "The Arabic element in Persian".)

- *Hindustani Grammar*, by John Platt, pp. 61 – 210. Urdu, Persian and Arabic constructions have been dealt with at greater length.

#### Persian

Persian is written in the Qur'anic or Arabic script and follows Arabic grammar and phrases. No student of Persian can understand classical literature without a knowledge of Arabic. The early famous poets during the Samanids, such as Daqiqi (369 A.H.) and Rudki (329 A.H.), wrote extensively and used Qur'anic and Arabic vocabulary. Now, only one thousand lines of Daqiqi are preserved in the Shahnama of Firdawsi, while a few hundred lines out of one hundred thousand lines, composed by Rudki, are extant today, which reveal the impact of Arabic and the Qur'an on Persian. Until the first half of the fifth century, Persian contained only 5% Arabic words but during the second half of the fifth century the ratio increased to 50%; and during the sixth and eighth centuries the ratio of Arabic elements in Persian reached 80%. This happened because of the impact of the Qur'an.

#### Urdu

The impact of Arabic on the Indo-Pak subcontinent is obvious. The creation of Urdu was the result of Arabic and Persian intermixture in the subcontinent. Linguists hold that a mass of Arabic words established themselves in almost every Indian language, though their influence is more perceptible in the Indo-Germanic family than in the Turanian family.

Like Persian, Urdu is also written in Qur'anic or Arabic script. Twenty eight languages of the world are written in Roman script while twenty four languages in the Muslim World are written in the Qur'anic script. The Arabic sound system was also adopted by them. Urdu, belonging to the Indo-Germanic or Indo-Aryan group, has been influenced by Semitic grammar.

The impact of the Qur'an on Persian and Urdu poetry—especially the mystic, philosophical and moral poetry—is quite manifest, Urdu poets using the teachings of the Qur'an as poetic motifs. The Holy Qur'an has been translated into all the major languages of the world. About 90 translations have been made in Urdu alone, while in Persian there are 52 translations. Dr Mas'ud Ahmad has discovered 155 names of scholars who have either translated or have written commentaries on the Qur'an. Many of them are not extant.

Urdu poets have versified the Qur'an, its commentaries and translations. This tradition of versifying the messages, the teachings and the morals of the Qur'an was inherited by the Persian and Urdu poets from the primary Arabic sources. The Qur'an had, therefore, a direct impact on the languages, literary creations and poetic motifs of the poets in the Muslim World.

## 3 The significance of Urdu as the third largest spoken language of the world

### 3.1 Introduction

The Urdu-speaking community has been described by the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* as the third largest community in the world, coming after English and Chinese. But the fact is that Urdu may be regarded as the second largest spoken language of the world, after Chinese. The vast majority of the Indian population of about 576 000 000 (*The Liberal Hindu*, magazine of the Hindu students' Association of the University of Durban-Westville, Vol. 2(2), 1983, p.7), despite its various local dialects or languages, speaks, understands and comprehends Urdu (or Hindustani). Be he from the south or from the north, the Indian uses Urdu as the common medium of expression to which he has given the name *Hindustani*. The political leaders of the Indo-Pak deliver their speeches in Urdu and the Indian/Pakistani Parliamentary proceedings are carried out in the same language (or in English when necessary). Former East Pakistan, now Bangladesh, adopted Urdu or Hindustani as a common medium of expression among the various groups of the Bengali-speaking population and communities. The official language of Pakistan is Urdu. Bearing these facts in mind, one is inclined to regard Urdu as the second largest spoken language of the world and not as the third as concluded by the *Encyclopaedia Brittanica*.

The term, Hindustani, was coined for the first time for the Urdu language by John B. Gilchrist in 1787 and the designation has been in use by Europeans ever since. However, the term was referred to in some of the writings extant as early as 1616.

Europeans regarded it as the lingua franca of modern India. The term "Hindustani" was soon associated with a specialized literary language, Hindi and Urdu, the difference being that Hindi was written from left to right in the Devanagari script with large borrowings from Sanskrit, while Urdu was written from right to left in the Perso-Arabic script, with many loan words from the Persian and Arabic languages. But Urdu belongs to the great linguistic family known as Indo-European and existed in India from the 13th century (*Encyclopaedia Britannica*). It was also employed as a spoken language which ultimately became the lingua franca of the Mughal Camp. Despite the Arabic and Persian loan words Urdu remained Indo-Aryan in its essential characteristics.

### 3.2 The genesis and the growth of Urdu

Early sources reveal that the name of the army of Babar (1556–1606), the founder of the Mughal empire in India, was "Urdu-e-Nasrat Shi'ar" (the language of the victorious army). The meaning of Urdu, a Turkish word, was "army" (lashkar). The epoch of Akbar (1556–1606) was the period of the formation of the language. Akbar named his army "Camp" or "Urdu-e-Mu'alla" (Exalted Army Camp). The army market was consequently called Urdu Bazar (Army Market). It was here that the soldiers of Arab, Iranian, Turkish and Indian origins would meet for commercial purposes and gradually evolved a common medium of expression—a language called Urdu.

It is reported that the language was officially named Urdu during the reign of Shah Jahan (1627–1658). The language also owes a great debt to Europeans, especially the Portuguese and the English who came to India as tradesmen, rulers and missionaries. The Portuguese influence seems to be noteworthy. From the Hindustani Press in Bengal came the large grammar of the Hindustani language (1796) written by Gilchrist. His dictionary, English and Hindustani (1787–90) is the first major work on Hindustani philology.

### 3.3 Urdu promoted by the Deccan, Delhi and Lucknow schools

3.3.1 It is interesting to note that Urdu, in its nascent stages, was nursed in Deccan (south of India), and poets used it as a literary genre for social, moral and political reforms. The majority of the poets, being mystics, used the language as a vehicle for social and moral reforms.

3.3.2 The northern part of the Indo-Pak subcontinent presents a more fascinating picture of the development of Urdu. The Delhi and the Lucknow schools in the north were the linguistic academies for the promotion of Urdu. The poets of the first period of the Delhi school, and above all, the celebrated Ghalib, created the golden period of Urdu literary culture. Similarly, poets of the first period of the Lucknow school, and Nasikh and Atish of the second period contributed to the refinement of Urdu.

After 1857 the new age dawned on Urdu, when poets and writers preached the philosophy of "Art for Life's sake" and rejected the idea of "Art for Art's sake". This gave rise to the sociological approach to the Urdu language and literature, for the literature was brought closer to life, and the human soul became the centre of art. The golden age of Urdu started in the nineteenth century when several writers employed Urdu prose for social and religio-cultural advancement. Dr Nazir Ahmad (d. 1912), merits special mention for his works expanded the horizons of Urdu prose for social reform.

### 4 The relationship between Urdu and the South African Muslim cultural communities in historical perspective

The future of Urdu in the South African situation can be determined only through empirical studies of the development and growth of Urdu in South Africa, its relationship with the community and the positive psychological attitude of the community towards Urdu.

Urdu came to South Africa from the Indo-Pak sub-continent with the Muslim emigrants who came either from the north, speaking Urdu, Hindi, Gujarati, Panjabi, Marati, Kokni, or from the south, speaking Tamil or Telegu. Shaikh Hassain, the first Muslim emigrant from the Indo-Pak sub-continent, came to Natal in 1860 aboard the ship S.S. Truro which carried the first batch of emigrants. He was followed by a band of Gujarati tradesmen who reached South Africa in 1869. They formed the first Muslim cultural communities in the area. In 1899 the British brought her army from the Panjab and the Northwestern Provinces (now in Pakistan) in order to fight against the Dutch. Many of them settled in this country. The Kokni from Bombay also arrived here for business purposes. The intermixture of these groups necessitated a common medium of expression. The religious schools were established for the education of children and mosques were built for prayers. The Imams for the mosques and the leaders for Madaris, who were imported from the Indo-Pak sub-continent, were the graduates of great religious institutions of India such as Randher, Deoband, Dabhel, and Breli, all with Urdu as the medium of instruction. Thus the common language of the mosques and the Madaris in South Africa became Urdu. Lectures were delivered in Urdu. The marriage ceremonies are still largely performed in Urdu. Thus Urdu gradually emerged as a great intercommunal cohesive cultural force in the multilingual Muslim communities of South Africa. Since the medium of instruction in Madaris was Urdu and the syllabi prescribed Urdu books, the children learned Urdu by heart and were quite attuned both psychologically and socially to accept Urdu as a lingua franca of the Muslim communities.

Local scholars came to the fore and wrote Urdu books. Moulvi Abu Bakr, a graduate of Madrasa Nizamiyya Frangi Mahal, Lucknow, inaugurated the era of writing books in Urdu. His books on grammar, theology and religion created a most favourable and encouraging climate for the growth and development of an Urdu literary culture in South Africa. Moulvi Khatib of Durban is well-known for promoting both Urdu and Persian. Moulvi Loot produced his own *New Urdu grammar* written in Panjabi. The most sterling work in promoting Urdu was done by the Waterfall Islamic Institute (Transvaal) which prepared the syllabi for Madaris in Urdu and established its own press to reproduce Urdu books on any subject, imported from the Indo-Pak sub-continent. They published books on Theology, Urdu language and Islamic history, and thus stimulated the growth of Urdu in the country. The services that the sufis (mystics) rendered to the promotion of Urdu, should be mentioned.

The Department of Arabic, Urdu and Persian was established in Durban in 1961 in response to the wishes of the community. The library of the University is now richly equipped with books in all three languages.

Our discussions will remain incomplete without having a cursory glance at the evolution of poetic taste in particular and the promotion of Urdu literary culture in general. The taste for Urdu poetry (Shir-o-Adab) and other literary activities was promoted by local poets who awakened the consciousness among the masses of their own poetic heritage. Safi Siddiqi, a genuinely inspired Urdu poet of Durban and Ghulam Majim of Laudium are responsible for creating a unique taste among the radio listeners.

Development of poetic taste in any community is an indicator of the intellectual refinement and maturity of a particular culture. Moulana

Tajammul Hussain, the principal of Madrasa Anjuman, Islamiya, Pinetown, is worth mentioning in this regard. He has played a splendid role in promoting the poetic taste in South Africa. Syyaid Umar Qadri, another champion of poetic art, made Urdu poetry an integral part of our society both in Natal and in the Cape. The institution of Musha-e-ra (public poetic recitals or a poetic tournament) has been a great promoter of Urdu poetry in the sub-continent. It is here that the critical genius, vision and insight of a community for appreciating a particular poem is tested. It has been an accepted tradition of Urdu literary culture imported from the Indo-Pak sub-continent. A Mushaera committee was also instituted in Durban and the first Mushaera was held in Durban in 1935 followed by another Mushaera in 1936, both being presided over by Moulana Ahmad Mukhtar Siddiqi. Muhammad Ahmad Mehtar Faruqi has been instrumental in promoting Urdu poetry in South Africa. He is, perhaps, the only poet who has published his Diwan (anthology of Urdu poems). Imdad Ali Sabri in his book entitled *The Urdu poets of South Africa*, written in Urdu and published in Delhi, has mentioned the names and works of South African Urdu poets. The book, despite its shortcomings and limitations, furnishes interesting information about the development of Urdu poetry. Many private and public literary societies have also contributed to the promotion of Urdu. The Iqbal study groups in Durban, in Pretoria and in the Cape have revived Urdu poetic taste and kept it alive.

Great poets of the sub-continent such as Maher-al-Qadri, Bekal, Iqbal Safipuri and Raghib Muradabadi visited the country and revived the Mushaera institutions from time to time. Such Mushaeras are now organized as regular features under the auspices of Bazm-e-Ardab (Urdu Literary Society) in the country. Bazme-Adab, in Durban, Benoni and in Cape Town has been quite active. The Department of Arabic, Urdu and Persian in Durban has been promoting the language through motivational lectures, radio talks, Iqbal centennial celebrations (April 1978), and has organized Mushaeras, awarding book prizes to the best students in Urdu. It was due to these endeavours that the enrolment in Urdu is growing annually. The statistics show the rising tendencies. From four or five students of special Urdu in 1976, we now have 142 students and the total strength of the Department in the three languages has grown from 35 in 1976 to around three hundred.

An examination of the statistics reveals how the psychological attitude of the community towards Urdu was favourably created and how the close relationship between Urdu and the community has been maintained since the earliest days. The language behaviour of the community towards Urdu has been quite promising. It must, however, be borne in mind that a reaction against Urdu was stirred for a short while, i.e. 1950-55, by certain individuals in the community, which had consequently led to the replacement of Urdu-orientated syllabus in Madaris as well as Urdu-speaking teachers and Imams by the English-orientated syllabus and English-speaking teachers and Imams. But the reaction was short lived. The Tablighi movement through its Urdu programmes, books and lectures turned the negative attitude once again towards co-operation and understanding. As a result of the change in attitude the young graduates would like to go to the Madaris of the Indo-Pak sub-continent with Urdu as medium of instruction for higher degrees and after their return they would love to deliver their talks and lectures in Urdu, citing even poems from Urdu poets in order to make their lectures and statements more elegant and effective. All the religious scholars who come to South Africa from the Indo-Pak sub-continent deliver their lectures in Urdu. The Jamiat al-Ulama (Natal), and the Waterfall Institute (Transvaal), have been offering courses in Urdu and the Madaris run by them follow the same course. These pupils, while joining the schools or the universities, are psychologically prepared to take Urdu as one of the courses. It is wise to adopt Urdu as a home language rather than English. Urdu as a cohesive force can play the same role in South Africa as it has played in Pentalingual Pakistan. It can unite the various Muslim cultural communities, such as the Kokni, Mamani, Surti and the Gujarati, into one linguistic group on the local scene and tie them up with the Indo-pak sub-continent on the international scene. In the environment of linguistic diversity in South Africa, Urdu can play the role of lingua franca as it has been doing in Pakistan. The introduction of Urdu from the grass roots, i.e. standard 2, is perhaps the greatest motivation in this regard.

It will improve the prospects of Urdu in this country.

Urdu can never jeopardise the universally established position of Arabic. Arabic is not the national language of non-Arab Muslim countries or of the Muslim minorities. Such attempts were made and are still being made but cannot succeed. Urdu has served Arabic in the sub-continent and has accepted its dictates in terms of script and grammar, poetic metres and rhymes, loan words, imageries, metaphors and similes. The influence of Arabic on Urdu is so great and well-known that we do not need to repeat it here. Urdu is, therefore, protagonist for Arabic and not an antagonist either in South Africa, in the Indo-Pak sub-continent, or in the Europo-American countries. Maher al-Qadri, the celebrated poet of Urdu, has rightly said about the future of Urdu in this country in the following couplet, which he composed in South Africa, during his visit:

ھو پھول مین رنگت کتنی ھی   خوشبو جو نہین تو کچھ بھی نہین
اس دیس مین چا ھے منصب ہر سے   اردو جو نہین تو کچھ بھی نہین

> *Language was not powerful enough to describe the infant phenomenon.*
> *– Charles Dickens*

> *Though man a thinking being is defined,*
> *few use the great prerogative of mind;*
> *how few think justly of the thinking few,*
> *how many never think who think they do!*
>
> *– Jane Taylor*

# New publications ... Nuwe publikasies

**Reviews**

**Lynn Dhority**

*Acquisition through creative teaching (ACT): The Artful use of Suggestion in Foreign Language Instruction*
Sharon, MA: Center for Continuing Development, 1984.

This book is the account of a teacher and researcher in quest of answers to the challenge of "how students learn best and how we as teachers can best facilitate the learning process".

Neurological, psychological, didactic and philosophical considerations are investigated in order to explain the development of the ACT approach which Dhority describes as seeking to provide a holistic model for teaching and learning. The research especially of Krashen, Asher and Terrell is singled out as part of the basis on which ACT has been built, together with the contribution of Lozanov's Suggestopedia.

The ACT Approach strives to optimize learning by tapping unused potential of learners. The most important factor utilized to achieve an optimal learning environment is *suggestion*. Positive suggestions enable the students to transcend their limiting self-concepts, beliefs and fears and thus liberate them to realize their learning capacity more fully. Details of optimal learning are sketched: physical, psychological, social, ethnical, aesthetic and didactic aspects that require particular consideration within the framework of holistic teaching.

In the actual ACT teaching sequence the material is presented in a relaxed, global and multi-modal way, in accordance with the Suggestopedic cycle: Prelude – Concert I – Concert II – Activation. Dhority emphasizes the *way* in which the concerts are presented and the importance of *music* in creating a synergetic learning effect. He indicates various ways of improving *group rapport* and of heightening the appeal to students' *imagination* (props, games, singing, dancing, miming, dramatization, etc.) Underlying all considerations about this teaching method is one important realization: The "supportive atmosphere which encourages spontaneity and risk-taking" is a prerequisite for success, for the accelerative snowball-effect. Aspects like "error-correction", "homework" and the introduction of grammatical patterns and paradigms should contribute to the improvement of the students' self-image and confidence.

The second half of the book (chapters 13 and 14) contains the documented results of two experiments:

- courses at the University of Massachusetts/Boston
- the Fort Devons Experiment.

Details are supplied of the objectives, statistical data (students, class format, facilities), teaching materials, method of presentation and the means of evaluation used. Especially the account of the Fort Devons Experiment can be recommended as a thorough document on a well-planned pilot programme in which Special Forces personnel achieved better results in a foreign language course (German) in a shorter time period than with the existing programme of the Defence Language Institute. A precise description of the DLI's skill levels (pertaining to speaking, listening and reading) is included in an appendix.

Included also is the first "act" of a German suggestopedic text ("Wollen ist können" by Charles Schmid) and a bibliography on Suggestion and Education, The Brain, Foreign Language Pedagogy and Topics of General Relevance.

The appearance of Dhority's book is a welcome contribution to the relatively new field of Suggestopedia in the Western world. It should prove valuable to all educationalists (teachers and researchers alike) who are seeking new ways of improving the effectiveness and the quality of their teaching, who are probing new avenues to facilitate their task of leading students into the challenges of the new world more appropriately.

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**S.D. Krashen & T.D. Terrell**

*The Natural Approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon, 1983. (Paperback, 191 pp.)

Stated simply, this book is based on the theory that language acquisition occurs when messages are understood. The objective of beginners' classes is to supply much input and by so doing, bring the learner to the point where he/she can understand language outside the classroom. In *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*, Krashen and Terrell attempt to put into practice their theoretical ideas on second language acquisition. It is based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which is supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts (p. 1).

Krashen and Terrell state two purposes for their work: to offer an introduction to the Monitor Theory and to provide a handbook for instructors who wish to use a communicative based approach in the classroom. This work offers practical applications of the model for foreign and second language teaching.

The first part of the book gives an overview of Krashen's theory. For those unfamiliar with Krashen's theory, this summary achieves its purpose i.e. to introduce the reader to the Monitor Theory. A background to what is termed "Traditional and Non-Traditional Approaches" to Language Teaching is included.

The latter part of the book is devoted to practical considerations for using the Natural Approach. This includes ways of organizing the syllabus and managing the classroom. Included also are valuable techniques to develop listening and speaking skills as well as the roles of reading, writing, grammar, error correction and testing.

In line with Krashen's Input Hypothesis that language acquisition can only take place when a message which is being transmitted is understood, many of the activities emphasize listening comprehension without extensive speaking. The emphasis is on *what* is being said rather than on the form of the message.

Krashen and Terrell do not believe that acquisition is affected by conscious learning or productive practice. Teachers are advised therefore that learning exercises such as drills or other controlled practice are not necessary for developing communication skills (p. 148). This implies therefore that teachers should abandon traditional techniques and concentrate on exercises which provide more input. Exercises in this book are most valuable and diversified.

This book is written very clearly and to the point. It is interspersed with various examples to help the teacher understand. This work will serve as resource material to both beginners and experienced instructors.

In *The Natural Approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*, the joint effort of Krashen and Terrell has made it possible for theory (i.e. Krashen's) and practice (i.e. Terrell's Natural Approach) to interact. The authors provide a practical formulation of the theory. They have adapted it to a variety of situations for different types of learners.

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**Carol Livingstone**

*Role play in language learning.* Harlow: Longman, 1983. (94 pp.)

In the past decade, the communicative approach to second language teaching has been the subject of unprecedented attention and research and already many claims have been made for its success. Several books by applied linguists have attempted to trace its development and explain its theoretical basis. Although a few language textbooks based on the communicative approach have also been published, some language teachers still have doubts about its practical implementation in the classroom, while many more confess to be at a loss as to how to meet the demands of a so-called "communicative syllabus". This is particularly true of teachers of English second language in South Africa, where a new communication-based syllabus is to be introduced for English L2 at secondary school level in 1986. Without doubt most teachers would welcome a book which not only lists several communicative activities, but also discusses, in practical terms, various ways of presenting these in the language classroom.

To a large extent, Carol Livingstone's book will meet these needs. As the title indicates, it concerns role play, but it would be wrong to assume that this is too limited a scope. Most teachers agree that, in order to achieve the student interaction essential to real communicative activities, some or other form of role play is usually required.

This book is a comprehensive guide to the use of role play in the classroom. Chapter 1 sets out to answer the question: What is role play? In doing so, it distinguishes between role play and other associated activities such as simulation, group work and dialogue work, thus providing the teacher with a workable frame of reference. Teachers more interested in practical examples will welcome Chapter 2, for it describes and analyses two role plays, touching on such aspects as teacher preparation, class preparation and follow-up work at both beginners' and advanced levels.

While Chapter 3, like the first chapter, is mainly theoretical (discussing the advantages and disadvantages of using role play in the classroom), the next three chapters return to practical considerations. Chapter 4 provides a role play checklist which includes student needs, organisation and follow-up. Chapter 5 deals with long-term preparation under the following headings: formal oral practice; dialogue work; miming, games and drama; listening comprehension. Each activity is clearly illustrated with the use of specific examples.

This leads up to probably the most useful section, from the point of view of the teacher. Chapter 6 is devoted to developing role plays. It deals, among other things, with interviews and role play using a particular theme. The examples supplied are on three levels: beginners', intermediate and advanced, and should prove useful to the novice as well as the experienced teacher. The chapter ends with detailed explanations of how to exploit existing role play material and how to create one's own. Finally, an appendix provides role play ideas at all three levels mentioned above.

Carol Livingstone points out that there are still a number of problems to be solved, notably "the teaching and learning of para- and extra-linguistic features, and the question of the acceptability and appropriateness of utterances in any given context and situation." Nevertheless, her book provides much needed practical information on the use of role play in the classroom and its integration into the total language learning programme. Teachers should welcome its direct approach to the subject, its clear organization, its conciseness and its many examples. It should prove an invaluable aid to the second language teacher in search of ideas and ways of implementing a communicative syllabus.

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**Ann Raimes**

*Techniques in teaching writing.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1983. (164 pp.)

This book forms part of the series, *Teaching Techniques in English as a Second Language.* Like others in the series, it is aimed at meeting the need felt by both practising and student teachers for theoretically well-grounded help with classroom practice.

> What teachers want are useful ideas, suggestions, demonstrations, and examples of teaching techniques that have proven successful in the classroom—techniques that are consistent with established theoretical principles and that others in our profession have found to be expedient, practical, and relevant to the real-life circumstances in which most teachers work.

Those who know Professor Raimes's *Focus on composition* will not be surprised that she was chosen to discuss the teaching of writing.

The organization of the book makes it very easy to use. It is neatly divided into nine chapters with self-explanatory titles: Introduction; Teaching writing in ESL classes; Techniques in planning the class: Seven basic questions; Techniques in using pictures; Techniques in using readings; Techniques in using all the language skills; Techniques in teaching practical writing; Techniques in using controlled writing; Techniques in teaching organization; and Techniques in responding to students' writing. For those who wish to explore the ideas and suggestions made, there are notes for each of the chapters as well as a carefully selected bibliography at the end of the book.

Chapter 1 provides a succinct overview of teaching writing in ESL classes, discussing such aspects as the reason for teaching writing, some of the differences between speech and writing, and the main approaches used in teaching writing. Professor Raimes is sensibly eclectic, emphasizing that "writing means writing a connected text and not just single sentences, that writers write for a purpose and a reader, and that the process of writing is a valuable learning tool for all our students" (p. 11).

Chapter 2 presents the teacher with seven basic questions which he can use in evaluating and selecting the techniques that will be most effective in his particular situation. Each question in turn is discussed, revealing Professor Raime's practical understanding of the difficulties and challenges which face the ESL teacher. Detailed suggestions are made, showing how, for instance, a dull textbook topic can give rise to a series of activities "that will help prepare students for the assignment and give them the opportunity to speak, listen to, read and write the new language in the process of making and communicating their meaning" (p. 13). She clearly does not see writing as a discrete activity.

I found her discussion of question 7 (What do I do about errors?) particularly lucid. Classroom practice has generally not yet taken account of the findings of error analysis and so teachers tend to be engaged in a search for errors. Professor Raimes provides a sound, coherent rationale for a different approach within the context of communicative teaching.

The other seven chapters are organized in a similar way. In each case there is a careful discussion of the value of the teaching resource, general strategies that could be usefully adopted, and then detailed consideration of appropriate techniques. At the end of each chapter there is a list of activities which teachers can use to develop or practise the techniques learnt in the book.

Some of the suggested activities are a little dull, and the ethos of the book is American. These are minor criticisms in the light of the excellent teaching that is to be found in this book. I warmly recommend it to language teachers who would like to increase the effectiveness of their teaching, particularly those whose training did not take "communicative" methods into account.

E. Ridge

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# Conferences, courses and meetings
# Konferensies, kursusse en byeenkomste

1986

**TESOL**

Place: Anaheim, California
Date: 3–8 March 1986
Contact: TESOL Central Office
201 D.C. Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington DC 20057
United States of America

**Twenty-first Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-cultural Communication)**

Place: Lisbon, Portugal
Date: 10–15 March 1986
Contact: A. Rocha Trindade
Instituto Português de Ensino à Distôncia
Rua da Escola Politécnica
147 Lisboa
Portugal

**Biannual Congress of the German Modern Language Association**

Place: Münster, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 24–26 March 1986
Contact: F.J. Zapp
Hedwigstrasse 4
D–8000 München 19
Bundesrepublik Deutschland

**American Society for Eighteenth Century Studies**

Place: Williamsburg, USA
Date: 27–30 March 1986
Contact: Richard Peterson
St Olaf College
Northfield, MN 55057
United States of America

**Twentieth International Conference of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language**

Place: Brighton, England
Date: 1–4 April 1986
Contact: IATEFL
3 Kingsdown Chambers
Kingsdown Park
Tankerton
Whitstable
Kent CT5 2DJ
England

**United States Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**

Place: Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Date: 3–5 April 1986
Contact: G.L. Ervin
Slavic Department
Ohio State University
232 Cunz Hall
Columbus, Ohio 43210
United States of America

### Society for Accelerative Learning and Teaching: Educational Visions and Applications

Place: Fort Lauderdale, Florida
Date: 9–13 April 1986
Contact: Vanda Williamson
7115 Clarke Rd
West Palm Beach, Florida 33406
United States of America

### Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Place: Washington DC
Date: 17–20 April 1986
Contact: J. Dodge
P.O. Box 623
Middlebury, Vermont 05753
United States of America

### Third International Conference on Minority Languages

Place: Galway, Ireland
Date: 21–26 June 1986
Contact: A. Ahlguist
Department of Old and Middle Irish
University College
Galway
Ireland

### International Conference – "To Educate the Human Potential"

Place: Johannesburg, RSA
Date: July 1986 (3 days)
Contact: The Conference Secretariat
International Conference
"To Educate the Human Potential"
457 Sussex Avenue
Lynnwood
0081 Pretoria
Republic of South Africa

### Nineteenth Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-cultural Communication)

Place: São Paulo, Brazil
Date: 22–27 July 1986
Contact: AIMAV
E. Rosseel
Av. 9 de Julho 3166
01406 São Paulo – SP
Brazil

### Twentieth Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-cultural Communication)

Place: Rabat, Morocco
Date: t b a
Contact: A. Lahjomri
Mohamed V University
Rabat
Morocco

### Eighth World Congress of the International German Teachers' Association (IDV)

Place: Berne, Switzerland
Date: 4–9 August 1986
Contact: Eurocentres
Seestrasse 247
CH – 8038 Zürich
Switzerland

### Sixth International Conference of Nordic and General Linguistics

Place: Helsinki, Finland
Date: 18–22 August 1986
Contact: M. Tandefelt
Nordica
Helsingfors Universitet
Regeringsgatan 11
SF – 00100 Helsingfors 10
Finland

## 1987

**Twenty-first Annual Conference of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)**

Place: Hollywood, Florida
Date: 28 April–3 May 1987
Contact: TESOL Central Office
201 D.C. Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington DC 20057
United States of America

**Eighth World Congress of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA)**

Place: Sydney, Australia
Date: 16–21 August 1987
Contact: Professor Dr J. Nivette
Vrije Universiteit
Pleinlaan 2
B–1050 Brussel
België

**Twenty-second Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-Cultural Communication)**

Place: Brussels, Belgium
Date: t b a
Contact: S. Cornil
Faculty of Philosophy and Letters
University
Blandijnberg 2
B–9000 Gent
Belgium

**Sources of information**

*FILPV World News*, No. 38(4) May 1985, Zurich

*SALT Newsletter* Vol. X(2) 1984, Iowa

> *Success begins with a fellow's will –*
> *It's all in the state of the mind.*
>
> *– Walter D. Wintle*

> *He started to sing as he tackled the thing that couldn't be done, and he did it.*
> *– Edgar A. Guest*

# Guidelines for contributors

1 The focus of the journal is on issues of language teaching, learning and acquisition, especially as related to communicative needs of multi-cultural, multi-lingual Southern Africa.

Authors are invited to submit contributions (only one original copy is required) on

- language acquisition and second or foreign language teaching and learning
- language courses for special or general purposes
- cross-cultural communication
- the effect of language teaching and learning on productivity and human relations
- technology in language teaching and learning
- innovative approaches to language teaching and learning, and
- training and in-service training programmes.

2 All contributions must be directed to

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University of Stellenbosch
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Republic of South Africa

3 Frequency of publication: once each semester.

4 Language of publication: English or Afrikaans.

5 Format of manuscripts for publication: Typewritten, double-spaced throughout, on one side of the paper, with two and a half centimetres of margin at the left. Footnotes should be avoided and essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped at the end of the article. References for an article should not be interspersed with notes. A standard format (Harvard method) for complete references is to be used.

6 Authors' full names and complete mailing addresses should appear on the first page of each article.

7 When an article is published by a group of authors under the name of an organization, the name and address of each author should be provided.

8 In cases where the author's surname might not be readily recognizable (e.g. if the conventions of a non-English language cause the author's surname to precede the first name), surnames should be clearly marked through the use of italics, capitalization, etc.

9 The inclusion of an English abstract for each article is required.

10 The deadline for submitting articles for the first semester edition is the 30th of September of the previous year; articles for the issue of the second semester must be received before 31st of March of the previous year.

11 Articles should, as a rule, not exceed 20 pages of A4-format paper. Longer contributions might be considered for special issues of PER LINGUAM.

12 Evaluation of articles is done by at least two specialist referees.

13 Multiple submission: In the case of simultaneous submission, please indicate which other journal(s); if the article has been accepted for publication previously, please obtain editorial permission to reprint.

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17.1 A brief double-spaced biographical statement that includes the author's professional status, address, etc. must be provided.

17.2 Identification: Because PER LINGUAM adheres to a "blind refereeing" policy (meaning that field readers do not know whose manuscripts they are evaluating), the following instruction must be followed:

When you cite your own previous publications, reference must be made to them in the *third* person: not "as I said in my article on Suggestopedia", but "as L. Botha said in his article on Suggestopedia". Upon acceptance of your manuscript, the editorial staff will convert the third person citations to the first person.

> *Applaud us when we run, console us when we fall, cheer us when we recover, but let us pass on – for God's sake, let us pass on.*
>
> *– Edmund Burke*

> *And only the Master shall praise us, and only the Master shall blame;*
> *And no one shall work for money, and no one shall work for fame;*
> *But each for the joy of the working, and each, in his seperate star,*
> *Shall draw the Thing as he sees It, for the God of Things as They Are!*
>
> *– Rudyard Kipling*

# Riglyne vir skrywers

1 Die tydskrif fokus op taalonderrig, taalaanleer en taalverwerwing, veral met betrekking tot die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van 'n veelvolkige, veeltalige Suidelike Afrika.

Skrywers word genooi om bydraes te lewer (slegs een oorspronklike kopie word vereis) oor

- taalverwerwing en die onderrig en aanleer van 'n tweede taal en van vreemde tale
- taalkursusse vir spesifieke of algemene behoeftes
- interkulturele kommunikasie
- die uitwerking van taalonderrig en taalaanleer op produktiwiteit en menseverhoudinge
- die rol van die tegnologie in die onderrig en aanleer van 'n taal
- nuwe benaderinge ten opsigte van taalonderrig en taalaanleer, en
- opleiding en indiensopleidingprogramme.

2 Alle bydraes moet gestuur word aan

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4 Publikasietaal: Engels of Afrikaans.

5 Formaat van manuskripte vir publikasie: Getik in dubbelspasiëring aan een kant van die bladsy, met 'n kantlyn van twee en 'n half sentimeter aan die linkerkant. Voetnote moet sover moontlik vermy word en noodsaaklike notas moet in die teks genommer word en aan die einde van die teks verskyn. Verwysings moet geen notas bevat nie en moet ook aan die einde verskyn. Die Harvardmetode moet vir volledige verwysings gebruik word.

6 Skrywers se volle name en volledige adresse moet op die eerste bladsy van elke artikel verskyn.

7 Wanneer 'n artikel deur 'n groep skrywers saamgestel is, byvoorbeeld in gevalle waar dit onder 'n organisasie se naam verskyn, moet elke skrywer se naam en adres verskaf word.

8 Elke artikel moet voorsien word van 'n Afrikaanse opsomming.

9 Artikels wat vir die eerste semester se uitgawe in aanmerking wil kom, moet voor 30 September van die vorige jaar ontvang word; artikels vir die tweede semester se uitgawe moet voor 31 Maart van die vorige jaar by die Redakteur wees.

10 As 'n reël moet artikels nie langer as 20 A4-bladsye wees nie. Langer bydraes kan vir spesiale uitgawes van PER LINGUAM oorweeg word.

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12 In geval van voorlegging ook aan ander tydskrifte, moet dit aangedui word. Indien die artikel reeds elders vir plasing aanvaar is, moet verlof van die betrokke redakteur verkry word vir opname in PER LINGUAM.

13 Kopiereg: Die Redaksie, PER LINGUAM.

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16.1 Die skrywer se professionele status, adres, ens., moet verstrek word in 'n bondige, dubbelgespasieerde biografie.

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> *He had a wonderful talent for packing thoughts close, and rendering it portable.*
>
> *– Macaulay*

> *Those things which are not practicable are not desirable. There is nothing in the world really beneficial that does not lie within the reach of an informed understanding and a well-directed pursuit.*
>
> *– Edmund Burke*

Gap fillers from: STEVENSON, Burton. 1967. *The home book of quotations.* New York: Greenwich House.

# Why we try harder.

**AVIS**

Vol. 1 no. 2

# PER LINGUAM

1985

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# PER LINGUAM

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Die artikels in **PER LINGUAM** is onderworpe aan keuring. Manuskripte, boeke om geresenseer te word, en alle bydraes wat verband hou met die doel van die tydskrif, moet aan die Redakteur gestuur word.

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# Editorial

The articles in this issue have been chosen on the grounds of the possible contribution they could make towards the restructuring of the South African educational system as indicated by the recent announcement by the Government of its ten-year plan for the improvement of education.

It is the responsibility of academics, of educationists and of a journal like PER LINGUAM to support the Government in its resolution, and to indicate ways and means in which the realization of the human potential can be achieved.

The articles by Maurice Imhoof and Norman Davies illustrate that even the simplest technology—radio and telephone—can be put to educational use where sources are limited. Renée Fuller draws attention to that age-old vehicle of learning, namely the story, and shows how it can be implemented in the teaching of reading. Sigrid Gassner-Roberts gives an overview of what has been achieved with suggestopedic teaching in Europe and Japan, and the impression is left that this vast well has hardly been tapped. Ongoing research is needed to realize the full potential of this valuable method of teaching. What seems to be lacking is the interest to make suggestopedic teaching a reality, especially in a Third World context.

Martin Phillips and Joe Hambrook discuss recent and more sophisticated developments in the teaching and learning of languages. What we need—once again—is the dedication to implement these techniques and to make a more equitable society a reality; a society in which education is the birthright of every child.

As Luis Alberto Machado puts it so aptly in his book, *The Right to be Intelligent* (Pergamon 1980):

> The first human necessity is education.
> Man is born knowing nothing but capable of learning everything.

It gives the Editorial Committee great pleasure to welcome Professor Robert Blair, Department of Linguistics, Brigham Young University, and Professor Jane Bancroft, Department of French, University of Toronto, on the Editorial Advisory Board. We also want to extend a welcoming hand to Professor Christina Bratt Paulston of the Department of General Linguistics, University of Pittsburgh, who is joining us in the same capacity. All three are experts in their respective fields and PER LINGUAM is indeed privileged to be able to draw on their resources.

The articles by Sigrid Gassner-Roberts and by Renée Fuller are published with the kind permission of Professor Donald H. Schuster, Editor of the SALT-Journal.

D.H. van der Vyver
L. Proctor

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PER LINGUAM VOL. 2 NO. 1 1986

# Teaching reading with stories vs. cognitive hierarchy

## Renée Fuller

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Suggestopedia emphasizes the use of interesting stories as vehicles for teaching classroom material such as reading or arithmetic. Independent support for this notion comes from the work of the author in teaching reading via stories in the Ball-Stick-Bird method.

Suggestopedagogiek benadruk die gebruik van interessante stories as boustof by die onderrig van byvoorbeeld lees en wiskunde. Steun vir dié sienswyse kom van die skrywer van hierdie artikel waarin die resultate bespreek word van die onderrig van lees met behulp van die "Ball-Stick-Bird"-metode.

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A few years ago at a meeting as part of a symposium on the Ball-Stick-Bird reading method, several of us presented data on the unexpected success of the method in teaching severely retarded students to read with comprehension. Unexpected as these results were, what was even more surprising was that they were achieved with a system intended for the superior—not the retarded. Although Ball-Stick-Bird simplifies the mechanics of reading in a number of different ways, for example, by showing how each letter of the alphabet can be made with three basic forms—a circle (ball), a line (stick), and an angle (bird), it emphasizes the abstract process of comprehension. Word building begins with the presentation of the second letter, and the stories start after the fourth letter. To deal with the vagaries of English spelling, the student is taught "code approximation". He is told that the letters of the alphabet represent a sloppy code. The only way he can be sure of the exact sound of a particular letter is to see if it makes a word that is sensible in the sentence or the paragraph. "Code approximation", in 20th century jargon, requires intellectual feedback (Fuller 1974, 1975).

The method had been designed for superior children who, however, have poor auditory and visual memories, along with a superior capacity for abstraction. The method was therefore considered beyond the intellectual capacity of the retarded. Only by chance was it tried on a retarded population.

It all began when we tested the alphabet innovation on a group of severely retarded subjects who had been exposed to a multitude of reading systems but who, in spite of every type of intervention, had not learned even the alphabet. Not unexpectedly, we found that teaching the alphabet by showing how it can be composed with the three basic forms did indeed produce more learning than usual procedures. This is where I expected the experiments to end.

But the psychologists who had done the alphabet experiments, being young and inexperienced, wanted to try the complete method, including "code approximation", on a severely retarded population. For a whole year, they lobbied before I agreed—restricting their experimentation to three patients. Much to my surprise, but not to that of the inexperienced psychologists, the three retarded subjects, and the many subsequent ones, learned to read with comprehension and changed cognitively. The success of subjects with Stanford-Binet IQs as low as 20 has been repeated again and again. These data raise profound questions, not only about the validity of IQ tests, but of the intellectual hierarchy implied by their sub-tests.

The results of the original experiment have been reported in detail elsewhere (Fuller 1975, 1977).

Early in the experimentation, it became apparent that "code approximation", rather than being excessively difficult for severely retarded subjects, was the main reason for their success. The contextual material, the stories, functioned to anchor the "bits" of information, and seemed to help in their intellectual cohesion. The stories had not only motivational value, in that they were high-interest material, but they made it easier for the subjects to understand what they had to learn and why. Reading came to resemble a game for which they were being given the rules in the process of playing. This allowed considerable implicit, rather than explicit, learning.

The subjects, however, were very explicit in their understanding of the stories. They told us, in detail, what they had read. Testing further demonstrated the importance of in-context material. Tests in which words were embedded in a sentence had significantly higher scores than tests where the same words were presented in word lists. This was especially pronounced for the very low IQ subjects. Once a retarded subject had learned to read stories with comprehension, he was also able to follow written directions. Given those results, it is curious to note that the importance of in-context material is all but ignored by the IQ tests. There are some interesting historical reasons for this oversight.

When IQ tests were first developed at the beginning of the century, their intent was to predict school success. To do this, Binet and Simon (1905) took task segments which were descriptive of the skills needed for school success. Because the techniques of turn-of-the-century education emphasized rote and segmental learning, the IQ subtests sampled this type of skill. Now more than half a century later, the tests continue to do so with relatively little change (Terman, Merrill 1960; Wechsler 1944). The most usual test items are disconnected segments such as digit span, memory for sentences, vocabulary definitions, isolated information, and so on. Characteristic of these tasks is that they are out-of-context. The child, in order to perform them successfully, is not asked how things relate to one another, to make a story out of them. Some psychologists, for example, Kagan (1963) have discussed the implication of these skills for individual cognitive style.

Although IQ tests have been credited with successfully predicting school performance, this success or failure has not always correlated with later academic performance. There are outstanding exceptions such as Darwin, Einstein, Alexander, Patton, Churchill, and a host of others who performed poorly in school, but whose intellectual achievements later in life were outstanding. Perhaps the reason these geniuses had difficulties in school was because they were called on to perform segmental tasks that are out-of-context; tasks that are similar to the items on IQ tests. Although these geniuses differ one from the other, they have in common an ability to make sense out of the world, to make a story out of what is going on. Einstein's laws of physics and relativity tried to tell us the story of the universe. Churchill made the history of the Second World War his story.

When IQ tests were first developed, they sampled current educational techniques. Since turn-of-the-century education rarely used in-context material, the tests tapped the segmentalized skills and knowledge needed for school success. With Spearman's (1927) claim that the tests measure "g", or general intelligence, the test items, by implication, became descriptive of the construct "intelligence". The growing importance of IQ tests in mass education has popularized "IQ" and reified it (Anastasi 1935; Tryon 1979). The tests have thereby perpetuated turn-of-the-century teaching techniques. Schools frequently try to teach the skills that students need to do well in IQ tests. This means they teach the segmental skills and knowledge that appear on the tests. They do not use the story method which taught our severely retarded subjects to read and which might even have made Darwin and Einstein into school successes. By continuing segmental teaching, modern education has frequently made the IQ scores self-fulfilling prophecies. Because the same skills are required in school as on the tests, the two correlate highly with one another. However, as our results have demonstrated, when you change educational techniques, the correlation between test and school performance can break down.

Although ignored by IQ tests, story comprehension appears surprisingly early in child development. By the time a child is two, he begins to follow a story. Is his budding capacity to understand a story the development of intellectual cohesion? Is this new imposition of structure on his environment the reason why he has a sudden spurt in vocabulary? Before story comprehension takes place in a child, his vocabulary consists of four or five isolated words. Then, almost overnight, his vocabulary explodes and he starts to make sentences, even if they are only two-word sentences. He now tries to communicate with words, to impose a structure on reality. The structure he tries to impose takes the story form.

Even among the retarded, there rarely is someone who cannot follow a story. There were two such students in our study. They were our two failures. Ned and Gordy were not able to follow a story, they remembered little about their own lives. Although they did not have the lowest IQs, verbal communication in the sense of telling us what had happened was all but impossible for them. And yet, Ned performed surprisingly well on the Stanford-Binet. His IQ of 63, one of the highest in the study, was achieved because he had been able to master some segmental facts and skills. But he was not able to function with these facts and skills. There is, of course, another type of patient, the schizophrenic, who frequently has the same inability to follow a story. And like Ned and Gordy, their IQ scores are also not descriptive of their level of functioning.

Although Ned and Gordy were not schizophrenic, their interaction with people and environment was on a much lower level than patients with lower IQs. The two had something else in common. Both had almost continual petit mal seizures. Perhaps the repeated electrical discharges prevented the neurological traces from being set down which would have made it possible for them to impose the story form on reality.

Advertisers have long known the effectiveness of the story, even for toddlers. But rarely have psychologists or educators shown such awareness. Had I had such awareness, I would not have been surprised when "code approximation" was effective at lower levels of development. Serendipity showed that story comprehension, which most of us would label at least for the "normal", was indeed a basic form of cognition.

The cognitive hierarchy assumed by education, IQ tests, and the construct intelligence, has its roots in the history of our science. The Cartesian conceptualization of learning, later modernized by Mills, and more recently by S-R psychology (Boring 1952), sees intellectual functioning as built by pieces of segmental learning which, in themselves, are without meaning, and have no cohesion. In spite of the work of David Katz (1948) and later Jean Piaget (1970), and now by many in this country, some of whom are on this panel (Elkind 1969, 1971; Hilliard 1975; Hunt 1961), IQ tests and education operate as though cognition requires that small segments, "bits" of information, must first be learned before their totality can be understood. Laboriously mastered segments are expected gradually to make a whole which may be reading a story, or anything else. A corollary to this is the assumption that "bits" of out-of-context material are easier to learn, are earlier in child development, than the later capacity to see things and to comprehend them in context.

One of our first subjects, Hal, demonstrated the importance of context to cognition. Hal's diagnosis was central cortical blindness which manifested itself in graphic aphasia. In other words, he had difficulty perceiving the "bits" of information required for reading. When you showed him two letters side by side and asked him if they were the same or different, he frequently was not able to answer correctly. As a result, his memory for letters was abysmal.

We took Hal on in our original study to see if his capacity to follow a story would bridge the cognitive gap involved in his inability to recognize the letters. Much to our surprise and delight, Hal did learn to read with comprehension. But even after he was reading fluently, when we showed him the letters of the alphabet separately, he frequently was not able to name them correctly.

Hal's case shows that the original conclusion of Gelb and Goldstein (1920) for traumatic cortical injury should not have been so restrictive. Their patients also were able to recognize the whole even though unable to recognize the parts. But the presumption was that this capacity to perceive the whole involved retention, not learning.

Hal's success is fascinating because, in his case, the injury occurred at birth rather than later in life. He demonstrates that there are occasions when it is possible for a person to learn a totality even though he has great difficulties in recognizing the parts (the "bits") that make up the totality. The human brain evidently is more remarkable as an adaptive and learning instrument than we had assumed.

For decades, Carl Lashley (1963) searched for the most basic unit of memory and learning, the engram. But he never found it. Was he looking for something too small? Have the IQ tests and education frequently done the same thing—tested for or taught a segment that was too small? Rather than "bits" of information being our intellectual engram, is perhaps the story the engram of our species? Is that the reason why our subjects were successful even when they had such low IQs? Is it because we inadvertently used techniques that involve the engram for our species? If so, it would explain why the IQ tests so flagrantly failed in predicting and describing the success of our retarded subjects.

Story cohesion, as the fundamental unit of cognition, could explain some disparate phenomena. For example, people tend to make a story out of their emotional states. When tired or irritated, we find a reason (a story) to justify the feelings. Under physiological conditions that produce anxiety, fear or rage, we seem to be able to find the appropriate cause—the appropriate story—to match the emotional state. We make sense out of our emotions, we create rationality for our physiological states, by placing them in the context of a story.

The need to make our life coherent, to make a story out of it, is probably so basic that we are unaware of its importance. Science has found it relatively easy to analyse the distant star or the distant molecule, but the understanding of ourselves is more elusive. To do so, we have to use ourselves as the analytical instrument. This, as Kant pointed out over a hundred years ago, is fraught with difficulty, and may be the reason why the importance of story cohesion to the intellectual process has not been obvious.

What we are so proud of, our logic, probably has its etiology in story cohesion. The first childish understandings of causality may well have their roots in the story. When we try to understand types of causality that do not easily translate themselves into a story, we have considerable intellectual difficulty. One can speculate how different our logic would be if the story were not the basis of our intellectual cohesion.

The importance of story cohesion in the evolution of our species can partly be gauged by the extent that the listening and telling of stories is linked into the pleasure centres of our brain. For anyone who doubts the linkage, remember the transfixed hours spent in front of the television set as you watch story after story unfold. Every modern prison system knows the symptoms of stimulus deprivation that occur when the major television system goes on the blink. Is the need to hear stories not only basic but necessary to our nervous system?

Is there a human culture anywhere that does not tell and listen to stories? To my knowledge, none has been discovered. For those of us who have worked in defectology, it has always been puzzling that blindness does not produce the cognitive deficits of deafness. Is this because, without the story to develop cognition, such development is crippled? From a comparative view, I also wonder whether the chimpanzees, with whom we are beginning to communicate in sign language, will also eagerly listen to stories.

Is there intelligent life some place in our galaxy that does not tell stories? What would these creatures for whom the story is not the basic form of intellectual cohesion be like? What would they talk about? Would they seem like schizophrenics to us? Or would they appear like computers? And would we have as much difficulty in communicating with them as we do with our own sick or with our machines?

## Summary

The data with the Ball-Stick-Bird method make it appear that story cohesion, as the basic form of intellectual cohesion, is earlier in development and cognition than we had thought possible on the basis of IQ tests. Because these tests have determined what we think is intelligence, their importance has frozen educational techniques into the pattern of turn-of-the-century education, which the tests had been designed to sample. This has happened in spite of the early innovations of Montessori (1930) and later Piaget (1970), and so many since. Not only have we reified IQ tests, frequently making a high score synonymous to success in life, the tests have determined what we consider easy or difficult, early or late in child development. The content of the tests, in spite of contrary data, has dramatically influenced our perception of how children think and solve problems.

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# Some personal observations of SALT, Suggestopedia and other accelerative learning methods in Japan and Europe

Sigrid Gassner-Roberts

During the last six months of 1984, the author of this paper travelled to Japan and to several Western European countries, investigating Suggestopedia and other accelerative learning methods. The original suggestopedic method as developed by Dr Georgi Lozanov has undergone many changes and adaptations to suit the cultural and political situation of individual countries. This article gives an overview of the changes and adaptations made by the different countries as well as an evaluation of the amount of success with which a given country has adapted Suggestology to suit its own particular needs and circumstances.

Gedurende die tweede helfte van 1984 het die skrywer van hierdie artikel na Japan, sowel as na verskeie Wes-Europese lande gereis met die doel om ondersoek in te stel na Suggestopedagogiek en ander versnellingsmetodes in die onderwys. Die oorspronklike suggestopediese metode soos ontwikkel deur Dr Georgi Lozanov, het baie veranderinge ondergaan en is aangepas om in te skakel by die kulturele en politieke omstandighede van die onderhawige lande. Met hierdie artikel word 'n oorsig gegee oor die veranderings; die aanpassings word bespreek en die skrywer gee 'n evaluering van die mate van sukses wat daarmee behaal is.

In 1984 I spent seven months in Japan and Europe in pursuit of SALT, Suggestopedia and other accelerative learning methods, visiting institutions, schools, universities, psychologists and teachers in pursuit of my objectives. My first stop was Tokyo where I was taken to the Institute of Suggestology. I immediately sensed that it would not be easy to find out the *true* state of accelerative learning in Japan. Japanese politeness is probably unsurpassed and so is face saving. Everybody I came in contact with was extremely co-operative, but rather evasive in answering my direct questions. For days all I could find out was that all was well regarding SALT, but no detailed answers to my questions, not even phone numbers of people who I knew were actively involved in SALT. I became very frustrated when I realised that my direct approach was a culture shock to the Japanese. On my sixth day there I was scheduled to speak at the Institute of Suggestopedia about SALT in Australia. After five hours of a rather one-way conversation suddenly doors opened. I obtained addresses, phone numbers, information. I was so perplexed that I asked why I had not been given all this information when I inquired the first and second time. The answer was: We had to find out about you first before we wanted you to find out about us. Then I heard of Westerners and Japanese who are involved in SALT in private business and in universities, that is Sanno University, of Westerners who had conducted workshops there. I heard—and this is now something that repeated itself in European countries—of positive emotional responses to workshops that in the end amounted to very little, because Western SALT is foreign to Japanese thinking. One Westerner in particular told me about the problems he has to overcome when he conducts English classes. I told him frankly that I could not help him since I was not familiar enough with the character of the Japanese people nor with their culture. Judging by all I heard at the Institute and later in Japanese homes, SALT in Japan is faced with very special problems. In my discussions I learned that numerous people believe or "make believe" that they understand SALT and apply it in various settings. It became clear to me that few people if any have found the formula for adapting SALT to Japanese culture. One significant example: my Japanese friend was asked to help with the translation of the book "Superlearning" into Japanese. Much of "Superlearning" deals with the para-normal. In this proposed translation all mention of anything para-normal would be eliminated, because, according to the psychologist who is doing the translation, the para-normal has no room in Japanese society. I became very aware in Japan of the importance of considering community, teacher and student attitudes when one wishes to introduce SALT; in fact, in my travels around Europe this awareness became almost an obsession with me. I am now convinced that no Westerner will ever be able to teach with SALT in Japan successfully, unless he has lived there for a very long time and knows Japanese life, culture and history and with it Japanese present and past concepts and attitudes to education extremely well. Japanese cultural attitudes are still so different from Western attitudes that the success of Western SALT is problematic. I heard of many language courses conducted by Westerners with Western SALT being only marginally successful, and some people have even sued their teachers. In one case a so-called Japanese SALT teacher refused to speak to me, when he was told that I wanted to discuss Japanese SALT with him and he said to my Japanese intermediary who translated his answer to me that he did not want to speak to anybody who was serious about SALT. I was shocked to find out how many people have jumped on the band wagon there and may be doing more harm than good.

My next stop was Copenhagen, where I spent several days with Vibeke Cristofoli, a teacher of mainly South American political refugees who were freed by Amnesty International and sent to Denmark, where they are living on permanent unemployment benefits in a new form of ghetto, a hotel. Why should they learn Danish, since they will never get a job, never have a home of their own, never really mix with Danish people, everything being provided for them? Vibeke teaches them Danish, but not only that, she teaches them *life*, how to forgive those who betray them under torture, how to cope with physical pain caused by past torture, how to gain mental health again after long periods of inhuman suffering. SALT in Denmark has been greatly influenced by her. Lately she has begun teaching patients recovering from a stroke how to cope, and in the course of it, they learn to speak and communicate in other ways. She now conducts workshops all over Denmark and also in Sweden. Her SALT is markedly different from any other SALT I have come across.

As in Denmark, there is great interest in SALT in Sweden, but only few people actually use some or all of it. Swedish SALT is being developed cautiously and slowly. I spoke to a number of teachers in Tierp and Uppsala who showed tremendous interest but were rather timid in the application of SALT in the classroom. I have come to believe that SALT teachers more than any other teachers need a backup, they also need a platform where they can discuss their successes and setbacks and their problems with each other, where they can re-energise and be re-inforced. SALT is fragmented in most countries in Europe for several reasons, an important one being the lack of academic research and training and application. SALT will only achieve the necessary respectability for a wider acceptance once it has been taken seriously by universities. As long as it remains in the hands of business people and enthusiasts it will not enjoy a real future.

In Finland teachers are still searching, investigating and trying out Suggestopedia and they realised from the very start that they have to develop their own brand of SALT. I gave lectures and demonstrations at several universities and colleges as a practising academic, not just a theoretician. The Finns believe that SALT suits their mentality extremely well, but not American SALT or Australian SALT. Therefore they are very eager to develop their own kind, and the universities and colleges invite foreigners to come and teach them. In 1982 the Finnish Society for Accelerative Learning was founded. The need for a backup system and for a discussion platform was immediately realised and acted upon. Peija Ilpola teaches suggestology at the University in Oulu and conducts workshops on request all over Finland. Gabriel Racle (Canada) and Charles Schmid (LIND, USA) have left their mark in Finland, too.

My research took me to the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany). I was amazed at how little SALT is known there. The translation of the book "Superlearning" which appeared in 1980 made some Germans jump on a band wagon of which they understood very little. At Bochum University two academics had done some work with SALT, but not enough to make an impact either on the academic world or on the general public. At the Freie Universität Berlin-West suggestopedic experiments have been conducted, showing no significant improvement of suggestopedic teaching over conventional teaching, according to Prof. Dr Ludger Schiffler. The Lozanov Institute which has its head office in Vaduz, Liechtenstein, tried to get established in Cologne, but without success. The appearance of "Lernen ohne Stress" or "Superlearning" on the bookshelves of bookstores changed this picture to a certain extent. Superlearning courses, superlearning games, superlearning cassettes have since appeared on the market in abundance. I examined some of them and was amazed at what their originators consider to be superlearning. As long as SALT remains on that level, it will not become respectable and therefore it will not be accepted by the Germans and most certainly not by German educational authorities. In academic circles there is great scepticism regarding SALT. It is my belief that no outsider will be able to convert West Germany to SALT. The conversion has to come from within. Foreigners who have conducted workshops there have been severely criticised afterwards. Again it is a matter of cultural, educational, political and other differences that inhibit the spread of SALT. I gave lectures at the Universities of Heidelberg and Heilbronn where I came across scepticism on the part of the academics, while the students and the general public quite often responded with an emotional and positive acceptance. But that is not enough. Only scientific data—and there is not enough of it available—might eventually change the situation for SALT in Germany. I came to the conclusion that as long as SALT is not taught as a methodology in Universities and Teachers' Colleges, as long as its superiority over other more conventional methods cannot be proven by hard scientific data, as long as we rely mostly on emotional responses by teachers and students to the method—and emotions don't last—so long will SALT not have a chance to survive.

My next stop was Vaduz, Liechtenstein, where I visited the newly established Lozanov Institute. The Institute under the direction of Tony Stockwell began its operations in Liechtenstein in January 1984. From 27 August to 15 September a test course was conducted at the high school in Vaduz on the strength of a report from Mr Felix Imhoff, the business director of the Lozanov Institute, and Dr Weiss, the school psychologist of Liechtenstein. After a three hour discussion I held with the latter, two months after the end of the course, I can report the following: The Lozanov Institute entered into negotiations to conduct a suggestopedic experiment in one of the classes of the Liechtenstein high school. A third year class was selected, consisting of 18 boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 16 to be taught English. A number of those students had an interrupted career in their school lives, as some had repeated classes, or they had been in special schools for slow learning students. Very few of them had had any English before. Classes were held daily from 8 a.m. to 1 p.m. except on Saturdays when class ended at 12 noon, with several breaks in the course of a morning. On Monday and Thursday afternoons a programme supplementing the course was offered to the students. The school psychologist as well as the students' regular class teacher were participants at all sessions. Tony Stockwell taught the class. Towards the end of the course the class teacher was included in the teaching to assist the transition from the suggestopedic to the ordinary teaching situation once the course was over. The supplementary programme included English games, like cricket, films and a barbecue. Two important points emerged from this report: there is neither a physical nor a mental relaxation period at the beginning or for that matter at any point in the course. I asked Mr Imhoff about that and he said that the Institute followed Lozanov's present format. He also said that the Institute was kept up to date with the latest developments in the Bulgarian Institute. The second difference from SALT is the passive concert session which is given at the end of *every* lesson. The course appears to have had all other ingredients of a suggestopedic course, including games, songs and even a play at the end. The school psychologist who admitted that he had never heard of Suggestopedia before he met the directors of the Lozanov Institute was most impressed. He was particularly impressed by the high level of motivation that this method achieved in the students, and particularly in that group of generally poorly motivated students. As far as he is concerned the success of the experiment is most obvious in the motivational area. Another very obvious result of the suggestopedic teaching in that class was that it is possible to increase the ability to concentrate even in those students who are markedly deficient in their ability to concentrate. A further positive factor of suggestopedic teaching which the psychologist mentions was that the students learned and applied rules spontaneously and without explicit explanations. The students did not receive any kind of conventional assessment. In order to transfer suggestopedic teaching into the prevailing school system, some form of acceptable assessment will have to be established. Since this first experiment with Suggestopedia was such a success, the psychologist recommended further experiments in language learning and also in reading for first graders. Furthermore, he recommended teacher training courses to enable Liechtenstein teachers to employ this method in their classrooms and thereby experiment with its effectiveness on several levels. The Lozanov Institute has since developed teacher training courses for the Liechtenstein school teachers in addition to its foreign language courses and business and management course. What is missing in this report is any data on actual language acquisition. But comparative tests as well as formal and informal evaluations on student, teacher and parent reaction are to be extensively conducted in the period in future. In his conclusion Tony Stockwell made several points, that he is totally satisfied with the psychological aspects of the course as well as with the established group dynamics and the learning effect. But he had expected more in regard to language ability. He blames the brevity of the course: 98 hours in three weeks. This, however, will be rectified in the second phase. In the Lozanov Institute in Sofia a course stretches over four to six weeks at three and a half hours per day, which seems to be a much better design. Many practising teachers can never teach suggestopedically in an ideal situation, having to make the best of a 50 minute period and therefore making allowances in every aspect of a course. Tony Stockwell's students were so motivated that they expressed a wish to continue their English lessons – an achievement unimagined for that particular group of students. The course was a success even if the expectations of the teacher were not totally fulfilled.

At the end of the course the two directors of the Lozanov Institute held a meeting for 34 teachers and representatives of the Liechtenstein school system where they discussed this school experiment. Mr Stockwell demonstrated to the audience the main elements of the suggestopedic method with practical examples. He stressed the importance of identity change, the dual plane, visualisation whereby he meant drawing a picture of the partner, and visualising text material, body language, student praise and corrections, indirect testing, corrections "via the back door", translations, the two concert sessions, the use of the ball, games and songs. The attending teachers were given ample time to ask questions and discuss all aspects of suggestopedic teaching. The school psychologist summed up his impressions of the experiment by highlighting the very pleasant teaching/learning atmosphere, the high motivation of the children, the ability to concentrate even of those children who have concentration problems in conventionally conducted classes, the type of student who was involved in this experiment, namely those who are school leavers due to poor self-concepts and low achievements, the new framework for the school, the excellent results achieved, the basic attitudes, namely ability, success and joy, the students' predilection for games, the decrease in problems of legasthenic students. To these comments the class teacher added that no problems arose in motivating the students to sing, contrary to experiences he has had in conventional teaching. The same applied to correcting the students' pose. The Liechtenstein government has seconded the headmaster and deputy headmaster for a one year sabbatical to the Institute and a five year plan has been presented by the school authorities for further tests at all school levels in several different subjects.

What follows is a report on the Austrian experiment.

From 1974 to 1978 a four year school experiment with Suggestopedia was conducted in Vienna with the direct involvement of Dr Lozanov and the Austrian Ministry of Education. Two elementary school teachers of two first grade classes who taught reading, writing and arithmetic were trained by Dr Lozanov. He also participated in the preparation of the parents of the pupils involved, and advised and administered the experiment during his extended stays in Vienna or from his Institute in Bulgaria. After two and a half years the experiment was assessed and found to be very successful. *The following points were found to be* most noteworthy:

- higher achievements both quantitatively as well as qualitatively,

- the positive connotation of school, instruction and learning,

- a trust relationship between pupils and teachers,

- steady increase of motivation and creativity,

- a reduction in aggression on the part of the pupils,

- no repeaters in the class, that is, all students passed at the end of the year (in those days approximately 8% of the pupils repeated the year due to poor performance) and

- increased interest on the part of the parents which indirectly aided the motivation of the children.

On the other hand, a heavy burden was put on the teachers who taught suggestopedically since the teacher not only had to learn the method and how to use it, but also had to produce the teaching and learning aids, individualise instruction, maintain closer contact with the parents of low achievers, and spend much more time and energy in the preparation of lessons. Psychologically the teacher had to trade the certainty and comfort of working with the existing aids for improvisation, pioneering and enormous effort. Ultimately the question remained: will the quickly acquired knowledge be retained over long periods or will it soon be forgotten.

Despite all this the experiment was continued. The Austrian Government concluded a cultural agreement with the Bulgarian Government and the Ludwig Boltzmann Institute for Learning Research was established. But then the problems started, most of them connected with Dr Lozanov himself and his availability or reported non-availability for the projects. No official reasons seem to exist why Suggestopedia à la Lozanov was discontinued as an officially sponsored methodology in Austrian schools. The fact remains that in 1978 the Institute of Psychology under the chairmanship of Prof. Giselher Guttmann, in co-operation with the Ludwig Boltzmann Institute for Learning *Research and the Federal Pedagogical Academy* of Vienna, began a school experiment called "Angewandte Lernpsychologie im Unterrichtsgeschehen" (applied learning psychology in the teaching situation). This project was to last initially for four years. I visited the Ludwig Boltzmann Institute in 1981 for the first time and observed several classes in session, and was impressed, particularly since my own teaching career had begun in a small Austrian elementary school in 1954. What I saw in 1981 was totally unrelated to what I had been taught when I attended teachers' college in Austria. The influence of Dr Lozanov is, of course, very noticeable, even if the developers of this new method do not give him any mention, let alone credit, in their report soon to be published in book form. The following comments are based on this report as well as on my observations during 1981 and 1984.

It is important to point out that acceleration of learning is definitely not the objective of the Austrian method. The report stressed this unequivocally. What the Austrian researchers hope to achieve is the elimination of stress and the fostering of joy in learning, as far as the students are concerned. In regard to research it is the duty of the Austrian pedagogical academies to develop and test new methods and—if found to be valuable—to pass them on to future teachers in the course of their training. Guttmann et al believe that they have developed a basic model for teaching/learning interaction in which they attempted to create conditions for learning, retention and re-call which respond to proven facts in learning research. In the course of four years more than 40 classes from the elementary and secondary level in three federal states took part in this project. Prof Guttmann and Dr Vanecek, both from the Institute of Psychology of the University of Vienna, guided this experiment scientifically. Instead of discussing the theory behind the Guttmann/Vanecek Model, I am going to describe the actual teaching situation. The teachers involved in the project were trained in seminars of a total of 120 hours. Additionally they received constant supervision and further schooling. The training included research in activation, neurophysiology of learning, research in verbal learning, motivation, fear and stress management and social learning. The parents of the pupils in the experimental classes needed to be informed too. A minimum of homework was expected from the children considering that the value of homework has never been proven scientifically. This was, of course, unexpected and new for the parents. They were also told about the relaxation training and the purpose of the music their children would now experience in their classes.

The Guttmann/Vanecek Model and its application: The model described here is to be seen as a framework for elementary schools since only in elementary schools do we have a situation where the students have the same teacher throughout the day. At the beginning of every lesson there is a preparation phase consisting of relaxation exercises, whereby the teacher has to decide whether the pupils' activation level needs to be lifted or lowered. In order to increase the activation level the teacher will do one of three things: muscle tension and relaxation exercises according to Jacobson, or activation through games involving movement, or listening to activating music with or without rhythmical movements. In order to lower the activation level the teacher will ask the students to count their breathing while sitting in a relaxed position, or to listen to relaxing music, or to "let music tell stories", whereby relaxing and pleasant imagery can be evoked, or to concentrate on just relaxing (without tensing) the body while in a comfortable position as in autogenic training. Relaxing music has the following characteristics: a slow and adagio-like tempo of a basic pulse of between 60 and 80 beats. The dynamics have to be contained within the range of 20 decibels. As a rule melodic intervals are not to exceed the octave. A regular tempo without rubato or clearly noticeable accelerandi, is another criterion. The selected volume of the chosen music is not to be greater than that of the voice at a softer than normal level (appr. 40 to 50 decibels). All selected pieces were tested by teachers and students in regard to their semantic differential and if any of them deviated from the ideal piece of relaxing music to any noticeable degree, that piece was eliminated. The following pieces were selected:

**Relaxing music:**

| | |
|---|---|
| BEETHOVEN: | Romance for Violin and Orchestra, F-major<br>First movement of the Moonlight Sonata<br>Second movement of the Pathétique Sonata |
| DVORAK: | American Stringquartet, Second Movement |
| GRIEG: | Morning from the "Peer Gynt" Suite |
| MENDELSSOHN: | Overture to the Midsummer Night's Dream (End)<br>Nocturne from the Midsummer Night's Dream |
| SCHUBERT: | The Trout Quintet, Second movement |
| SMETANA: | The Moldau (The Spring of the Moldau; Moonshine, The Dance of the Nymphs) |

**Activating music:**

| | |
|---|---|
| BRAHMS: | Hungarian Dance No. 5 |
| DVORAK: | Slavonic Dance, G-minor<br>American Stringquartet, Fourth Movement |
| GRIEG: | In the hall of the Mountain King |
| HÄNDEL: | Music for the Royal Fireworks |
| MILHAUD: | Braziliera from "Scaramouche" |
| TSCHAIKOWSKY: | Russian Dance (Trepak) from "The Nutcracker" |

Immediately after the relaxation a short musical signation is given. Each subject has its own signation.

The following signations are used:

| *Subject* | *Music* (approx. 30 sec) |
|---|---|
| Writing | Schubert: Balletmusic no. 2 from "Rosamunde" |
| Mathematics | Schubert: Fifth Symphony, Opening theme |

| | |
|---|---|
| Reading | Prokofieff: Peter and the Wolf |
| German Language | Schubert: Sonatina for Violin and piano in D major |
| *General Subject:* | |
| Social Studies | Leopold Mozart: Fanfare from the Musical Sleigh Ride |
| *General Subject:* | |
| Natural Sciences | Leopold Mozart: Musical Sleigh Ride |

The pupils are told quite frequently of the value of relaxation. Immediately following the signation it appears to be best for the dramatic quality of the lesson for a slide to be shown on an overhead projection or on the blackboard in order to lead them directly into the information phase in total quietness and relaxation. The teachers are free to choose their preferred technique, that is, they can use one or more of the following possibilities: a short lecture by the teacher, an experiment, a discussion, group work, individual work, work with a partner. Any mechanical and routine work is to be avoided. The classroom is, of course, arranged in a way that makes movement and flexibility possible. The detailed formulation of the criterion/criteria of the lesson play an important part in the Guttmann/Vanecek Model. Central to their thinking are the following two criteria:

a) What should the pupils know or be able to do? (knowledge, technique)

b) How well should they know (be able to do) it? (ability, difficulty)

Furthermore, the teachers were taught to think in terms of overall goal and goals within the overall goal. The example given from the subject Social Studies shows the district with 20 streets as the overall goal and four times five streets as four goals within the goal. This aspect demonstrates very clearly the reversal to Lozanov's thinking of "stuffing", of presenting more material than normally.

The information phase is followed by a pause. During that pause anything can be done that is not in any way related to the subject matter. Most often the pupils engage in musical activity, including work with Orff instruments and rhythmic dance.

The next phase consists of the first repetition of the new material in a way that is not boring or repetitious. This is followed by the second pause and then the second repetition, which brings the end of the lesson on day one, a fifty minute lesson. It is now clear that this model is particularly suited for elementary schools where one teacher teaches all subject areas. Instead of musical activities I saw teachers go into arithmetic or reading during the pauses in a first year elementary class. A third repetition takes place on day two and a fourth one after a few days.

One of the most valuable learning aids in this project is the learning card system. It consists of a box with five partitions. Factual material to be learned, for example vocabulary, spelling, rules, formulas, and so on are moved from one section of the box to the next according to how well they have been learned or forgotten. Items that are safely stored in the memory are finally discarded from the box. Research proved clearly that this learning card system was invaluable particularly for the less able children. It enables the pupils to regulate their learning themselves, it avoids overkill of learning material, it gives the pupil a permanent control mechanism of his/her knowledge and it increases motivation noticeably. The teachers discuss with the children which items should be put on the cards. The pupils are also allowed to make individual cards for things that interest them beyond the material presented in class. Instead of boxes the teachers allow the pupils to use envelopes. In the upper classes I saw the students use envelopes marked "to be learned", "to be repeated" and "examination material". The latter contained the question on one side of the card and the answer on the other. The Guttmann/Vanecek manuscript explains in great detail the psychology of the learning card system which I will not discuss here. A card system has been established for general studies, foreign languages and spelling.

The pauses within the lesson are justified by the biochemical processes which are necessary to translate the new information or learning material from the short-term into the long-term memory. As far as the repetitions are concerned the researches refer to Ebbinghaus' curve of forgetting. The first repetition should not differ much from the original presentation of the new material. For that purpose worksheets and other techniques that make it possible for the teacher to check the work of the pupils are used. The second pause is twice as long as the first one. It is used to review old material. Here the learning card system, question and answer games, pair work, and so on can be employed, to serve long-term repetitions. The second repetition of the new material on day one should include variations from the original input. If about 90% of the pupils are able to do the second repetition alone without help, then the third repetition is given in the form of homework, otherwise it is done on the following day in class. A few days later a fourth repetition takes place. Long-term repetitions are conducted no sooner than after a fortnight.

The Guttmann/Vanecek Model also includes a peer-tutorial-programme. It need not be discussed here since it was developed in the USA and is already widely used there.

Several controlled experiments have been conducted in Austria using this model and all of them point to a total success.

As I mentioned at the beginning of my discussion of the Austrian experiment, acceleration of learning and thereby going beyond the normal curriculum of the respective class is not an aim of the Guttmann/Vanecek Model. Nevertheless, acceleration of learning took place. On average the pupils covered at least half, in several cases all of the following year's work in one year. More important than the speed-up of learning was to the researchers and teachers the quality of work the pupils achieved, and the side benefits, like improved verbal and written expression in the mother tongue as well as in the foreign language, increased interest in reading, considerably better spelling. Here an interesting observation was made. One group of pupils had been involved in the Lozanov programme. These pupils were 17% behind the control groups as far as spelling was concerned, because in the suggestopedic classes spelling was almost totally disregarded. Two years of work with the learning card system could not eradicate the spelling deficiency caused by suggestopedic teaching. In Math in the upper years of the elementary school the pupils achieved higher marks compared with the control groups and accelerated their material up to one year. The experimental groups increased their marks by almost 16%.

In summary it can be said that the Guttmann/Vanecek Model as tested in 42 classes in three federal states of Austria is a successful model in all aspects of learning that were tested in controlled experiments. It satisfied the teachers, parents and students alike. It proved to be stressfree and enjoyable for the pupils, it increased the quality of their work and accelerated their learning remarkably. Observing several classes at work I could not detect any increase in creativity. In fact I find it quite interesting that in the report on the experiments there is no mention of creativity. It is now in the hands of the Austrian educational authorities and of the politicians to decide whether or not this model will be implemented in the Austrian school system on a general basis. In any case, it will most probably be taught at the teachers' colleges. From then on it will be up to the individual teacher to implement it or not as long as the Ministry of Education has not made an official recommendation.

In summary it can be said that Lozanov's work is now known worldwide. In the West many varying degrees of adaptations, from strong adherence to the 1980 version of Bulgarian Suggestopedia as found in Liechtenstein to the Guttmann/Vanecek Model in Austria that emerged from Lozanov's research but developed in an altogether different direction, many attempts at accelerating learning have been made. The lack of research centres in the West where for instance factual data on the psycho/physiological aspects of learning and teaching could be produced, make accelerative learning not easily acceptable to the majority of people, academics and the general public alike. Additionally, inefficient teacher training and, if available at all, its high costs either cause teachers to give it up too quickly or prevent them from undertaking training at all. Unless we can overcome these obstacles, accelerative learning in any shape or form will remain in the hands of enthusiasts and esoteric teachers and never make a great impact in education.

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***We solemnly affirm that all men are substantially equal.***

***In every man who believes himself superior to his fellows by nature, there exists a potential racist.***

***If intelligence is previously fixed in chromosomes, any fight for the establishment of social justice is ultimately useless.***

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# Approaches to the design of language teaching software

Martin K. Phillips

It is argued that there is a need in the field of computer-assisted language learning to develop a principled framework which will enable current activity to be related to an appropriate theoretical perspective and to suggest avenues of future development. A comparison of two different types of CALL programme leads to a discussion of some of the possible elements of such a framework.

Daar word 'n argument voor uitgemaak dat 'n verantwoorde raamwerk ontwikkel moet word op die gebied van rekenaarondersteunde-taalonderrig. So 'n raamwerk sal daarvoor sorg dat teenswoordige aktiwiteite verband hou met 'n toepaslike teoretiese perspektief en dit sal moontlikhede open vir toekomstige ontwikkeling. 'n Vergelyking van twee verskillende rekenaarprogramme vir taalaanleer lei tot 'n diskussie oor enkele moontlikhede vir die ontwerp van so 'n raamwerk.

Computer-assisted language learning is in a state of ferment. After many years of relatively unexciting experimentation using mainframe and minicomputers, which gave rise to such developments as the TICCIT (Time Shared Interactive Computer-Controlled Information Television) and PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations) systems and the British National Development Programme for Computer-Assisted Learning, a fresh impetus has been given to the field through the recent widespread availability of relatively cheap, high-quality microcomputers. Teachers are becoming involved in the exploration as never before. A recent publication encourages them to take up programming in BASIC (Beginners All-Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code) (Kenning & Kenning 1983); another suggests a variety of innovative ways in which the computer can be exploited in the classroom (Higgins & Johns 1984); in the British Council we have recently launched a project to introduce CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) into our overseas teaching operations. Creativity is rife and the prospects are exciting.

There is, however, a price to be paid for this ferment. This is a certain fragmentation of development as individuals explore their ideas in the relative isolation that the microcomputer permits. I do not oppose this development. Indeed, I believe it is profoundly liberating and an essential prerequisite for the healthy growth of the field. But there is also a need to stand back from the immediacy of programme design in order to arrive at a more comprehensive view of CALL and to determine the principles upon which coherent development can take place. If we do not look at CALL in a theoretical perspective, there is a danger that the field will be discredited solely on the basis of shortcomings in particular implementations. Many programmes exist which are individually interesting; but the one-off success may not be sufficient to guarantee the viability of the field. It is therefore necessary to reflect upon the experience of successful programme design to see what generative principles for the development of CALL can be extracted. Only in this way will the potential of the field be translated into accepted practice.

Thus a framework is needed for thinking about the development of CALL. This framework should provide criteria so that decisions can be made about priorities and emphases. It should offer a coherent overview so that individual developments can be related clearly to the curriculum context in which they must exist and to each other. It should suggest the lines upon which standards can be elaborated. This framework does not yet exist. What I propose is to take a preliminary look at what might be involved in arriving at such a framework by examining two CALL programmes in some detail for the insights they may offer into developmental principles.

These two programmes have been produced on an experimental basis under the auspices of the British Council. They are intended as an English language learning resource, though of course the principles involved are likely to apply to a large number of languages. The first is a programme called *Letter-shoot* and the second is called *Finder*. Both programmes are designed to run on the BBC Model B microcomputer with disc drives. This is the computer which has been adopted as the standard machine for the first phase of our project.

*Letter-shoot* takes the form of an arcade game for one player. The student controls the lateral movement of a cursor. The screen displays a random selection of letters in random locations. The display scrolls down the screen at a speed governed by the level of difficulty chosen. The objective is to compose words by manoeuvring the cursor to "hit" letters as they scroll past. The student can choose to make words in a number of different conceptual categories, for instance, "Animals", "Colours" and so forth. The computer keeps a running check of the state of each word being composed and credits the student as soon as a word for which there is an entry in its lexicon has been completed. An incorrect "hit", that is, hitting a letter which is not a possible continuation, aborts the current run of the programme. A further option offered by the programme, which is particularly useful for students whose native language does not use the Latin script, is the facility to hit letters in alphabetical order or to hit upper and lower case pairs. Thus *Letter-shoot* aims to harness the motivation and excitement of the *Space-Invaders* type of game to the tasks of letter recognition, spelling and vocabulary building.

*Finder* adopts a quite different approach. This programme presents the student with a problem situation. It is assumed that the student has lost his three suitcases which he can only recover if he succeeds in drawing them. This he does by giving the computer instructions to produce the required graphics. The student can control the colour, height, length and width of the suitcases displayed on the screen. The computer randomly generates the target configuration but this is not displayed. At any time the student has a number of options for comparing his efforts against this virtual target configuration. Using the clues provided by the computer each time he asks for a comparison, it is possible for the student by a process of elimination, to narrow down the range of variation for each of the suitcases he is drawing and finally to arrive at the correct configuration. In the course of doing so, the student will have practised intensively a number of comparative forms and have both given commands to the computer and interrogated it for relevant information.

It will be instructive to compare these two programmes. If it proves possible to determine the critical dimensions along which the programmes vary, it may be feasible to see any given programme as generated by the combination of particular values of a number of abstract variables. This will then represent an important step towards establishing the elements of the framework which is needed to guide our thinking about CALL.

We must thus attempt to answer the question, in what significant ways do these two programmes differ? The first answer which suggests itself is that they generate different types of activity. *Letter-shoot* adopts a game format whilst *Finder* is what may be called a problem-solving programme. Thus activity type seems to be a useful discriminating category. Programmes which adopt a game format may, for example, be adaptations of the now familiar "arcade" type game, as is *Letter-shoot*, or of the more strategic type of board game. In both cases, however, the point is that the objective of the game as exploited in CALL is attained by the exercise of a linguistic skill rather than or in addition to a motor skill. Malone calls these "extrinsic fantasies" because the activity does not depend on the skill (Malone 1982). The same activity could equally well be used to practise a non-linguistic skill, for example, mathematical operations. Similarly, problem-solving activities, such as that exemplified by *Finder*, typically set the student a problem of a logical nature involving the use of language in reaching a solution.

It is possible to identify a number of other activity types. We are all familiar with the type of programme which manipulates text in one form or another. Some programmes generate a task by analysis of a text drawn from a pre-existing database of texts. The student's task is to recover the text which has been "degraded" in this way. I call these text-reconstruction programmes. *Storyline*, another programme developed under the auspices of the Council's project, is one example. Other programmes invite input from the student in order to construct discourse which may take the form of a simulated conversation or a question and answer session. In this case the computer is generating the task by synthesising it from initially discrete linguistic elements. These may be called text construction programmes.

Tim Johns first drew the distinction between what he called analytic and synthetic generation (Johns 1981). An example of a programme based on the principle of synthetic generation would be *Chatterbox*, an adaptation to language teaching of the Eliza programme.

Other activity types which suggest themselves are simulations, exploratory programmes and, of course, quizzes. Quizzes were perhaps the first kind of language learning activity implemented on computers and still have a role to play. More recently, however, attention has turned towards trying, in a limited way, to apply artificial intelligence techniques to the design of CALL programmes, where the computer is programmed with a limited knowledge of a restricted aspect of reality. Such simulations thereby involve the student in decision-making tasks using language. Malone has referred to this type of programme as "intrinsic fantasies", because the existence of the situation modelled by the computer depends on the linguistic skills practised. John Higgins' *John and Mary* represents a limited implementation of this approach.

Finally, exploratory programmes are those in which the computer is provided with a set of rules for a fragment of the linguistic system. The student has the task of devising suitable examples with which to explore the limits to the computer's "knowledge". A number of such programmes exist, mainly focusing on word morphology. It is likely that activity type is a productive category and that further experimentation will suggest other possibilities.

It is obvious that programmes can differ in the linguistic learning point embodied in the activity they generate. *Letter-shoot*, for example, is concerned largely with word lexis and spelling whilst *Finder* practises a number of syntactic structures and comparative forms of the adjective in particular. Thus different programmes have different linguistic foci; this feature may be called programme focus and clearly represents an important element in any generalised framework for CALL. But *Letter-shoot* and *Finder* also demonstrate that the programme focus may not correspond to the way in which the student perceives the programme. In *Finder*, for example, the task recognised by the student is not that of practising comparative forms of the adjective, but rather the more meaningful one of attempting to solve the logical problem posed by the computer. Similarly, the task in *Letter-shoot* is interpreted as the competitive one of maximising one's score. In other words, programme focus need not coincide with learner focus. Indeed, it can be argued that it should not and that one of the strengths of the computer is the possibilities it opens up for reducing what may be called the "inauthentic labour" of language learning whilst increasing the opportunity for "authentic labour", that is, work which has a significant non-linguistic outcome (Kemmis 1977). Learner focus thus appears to be another useful category for thinking about CALL.

If the programme focus can differ from one programme to the next, this implies that the difficulty of programmes can differ. Difficulty as such, however, is a rather undifferentiated and therefore unhelpful notion. Again, it can be explicated by reference to *Letter-shoot* and *Finder*. It is clear that the two programmes differ in terms of the intrinsic difficulty of the language used. *Letter-shoot* is principally a matter of vocabulary, which may or may not be known, but which does not present any intrinsic conceptual problems. *Finder*, on the other hand, involves appropriate use of a variety of comparative structures and two types of question form. It could be argued that linguistically *Finder* is inherently more difficult than *Letter-shoot*. But it should also be evident that this difficulty is adjustable precisely because it is a function of the linguistic content. Clearly, the difficulty of *Letter-shoot* depends to a certain extent on the particular choice of vocabulary incorporated in the game whilst *Finder* could include a number of more sophisticated turns of phrase than those currently implemented (for example "Lengthen my red suitcase!" "Is my blue suitcase as long as yours?"). What emerges from this discussion is a notion of language difficulty for CALL.

The foregoing considerations also indicate that the activity generated by a programme can be conceptualised independently of any particular linguistic content. This suggests that there is another dimension of difficulty pertaining to the design of the programme as such rather than to language. Again, the comparison between *Letter-shoot* and *Finder* is instructive. *Letter-shoot* is designed so as not to require any linguistic input from the students. Words are composed by moving a cursor controlled by cursor keys on the computer keyboard. *Finder*, however, demands linguistic input: the student has to type in appropriate sentences and to this extent *Finder* is more exacting than *Letter-shoot*. Note that this type of difficulty is not a function of the linguistic content but of the design of the programme as a programme. It is entirely possible to conceive of the manipulation of letters in *Letter-shoot* being executed in response to typed commands from the student whilst *Finder* could be so arranged that the student selects input from a range of alternatives presented on the screen and thus never has to type more than a single letter or number. Neither alteration would affect the difficulty of the linguistic focus of the programme as such but clearly what may be referred to as the programme difficulty is changed.

There are other ways in which programme difficulty can be adjusted. *Finder*, for example, insists on accurate input from the student; there is strict matching of input against the language forms accepted by the computer. This constraint is not, however, a necessary one. It is quite possible to incorporate input routines involving fuzzy matching, as Johns' "intelligent spelling checker" demonstrates (Higgins & Johns 1984). In certain circumstances, the limitation of a restricted input set can be relaxed virtually altogether, either through keyword matching techniques of the sort used in Eliza-type programmes or through input parsing. Another obvious way in which programme difficulty can be controlled is where a timing element is introduced; obviously, where the student is working within a time constraint, the limit can be more or less liberal.

Another way in which programmes can differ is in the ways in which they can be exploited in the teaching situation. *Letter-shoot* for example, is clearly intended for use as an individual exercise, though it could conceivably be used as a competitive team activity. It would not be particularly effective as an individual activity since the element of strategy would thereby be lost. In contrast, *Finder*, whilst feasible as an individual activity, since its problem-solving nature is suited to solitary reflection, is perhaps best exploited as a group work or classroom exercise. It seems to be a characteristic of many programmes that they are exploitable in a number of different learning configurations with the principal distinction being between programmes usable by the individual and those which are not. Thus a further element in the framework for thinking about CALL is the category which I call classroom management.

Finally, it is possible to ask whether different types of programmes lead to qualitatively different styles of learning. In what way, for example, does the learning experience generated by *Letter-shoot*, differ from that produced by *Finder*? Different programmes induce different learning styles, which may be more or less complex. The principal dimension of difference among learning styles is the extent to which the learning which takes place is dependent on the context created by the programme. The simpler learning styles are context-dependent, that is, very much tied to the particular tasks in hand. The more complex styles involve learning which is context-independent, learning which is generalisable from the immediate programme task and therefore applicable in a wide variety of situations. The most basic learning style is simple recognition; the student is required only to recognise linguistic items as they are presented without any further creative involvement. It could be argued that this is the type of learning stimulated by *Letter-shoot*. *Finder* is an example of a programme fostering a more sophisticated learning style. Here the learner actively explores a field of linguistic behaviour and the programme presents a model of language use with which the learner is encouraged to experiment. This could be called "experiential learning". Other programmes will promote recall, comprehension or constructive understanding; in the latter, the learner draws upon his linguistic resources to create novel language events. It is clear that the computer can be used to promote learning in ways far removed from the habit formation of programmed instruction associated with early attempts at computer assisted instruction and that learning style is an important category in any conceptual framework for CALL.

The preceding discussion has identified a number of useful analytical categories; activity type, programme focus, learner focus, language difficulty, programme difficulty, classroom management and learning style all seem to be necessary and helpful categories with which to approach the design of software. It may well be that other categories can be added to the analysis. One suitable goal for the development of CALL would be to explore what further categories might be needed. Nor have I considered the issues raised by the interactions among categories. It should be evident, however, that a given programme can be considered as a nexus of values taken in a particular instance for each of the categories considered here. *Letter-shoot* and *Finder* represent two different configurations arising from the interaction of the same set of categories but with different values in each case. This suggests that a fruitful approach to CALL software development would be to experiment with different combinations of values. One advantage of the conceptual framework which at the outset I suggest was needed would be its use as a heuristic device. Such a framework, incorporating the categories I have outlined here or similar ones, could encourage development by suggesting logical programme types. It is up to our imagination as teachers and our ingenuity as programmers to see how many of the logical possibilities can be translated into viable programmes and stimulating learning environments.

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# Media use in distance education in Sweden

Norman F. Davies

This article gives an overview of distance language teaching which developed rapidly in Sweden after the Second World War. It argues that so far little use has been made of technical aids and that the computer as such is still a stranger both to the language teacher and the student. The writer concludes that perhaps the time has come for a technical revolution amongst Arts students.

Met hierdie artikel word 'n oorsig gegee oor afstandsonderrig—spesifiek wat tale betref—soos dit in Swede ontwikkel het na die Tweede Wêreldoorlog. Daar word op gewys dat tot dusver min gebruik gemaak is van tegniese hulpmiddels en dat veral die rekenaar onderbenut is. Die skrywer sluit met die gedagte dat die tyd moontlik ryp is vir 'n tegnologiese rewolusie in die geledere van die Lettere en Wysbegeerte.

Since the Second World War, one of the outstanding aspects of social reform in most societies has been the spreading of educational opportunity to previously underprivileged groups, coupled with the realisation that education is not a once-and-for-all process, completed in adolescence or early adulthood. The pace of change in the modern world entails for many recurrent education or re-education at various stages of their working lives.

One result of these insights has, in many countries, been a change in the role of the university department, in the range of courses offered, and in the composition of the student population. In my own department, Language for Special Purposes is steadily growing in importance and as a proportion of our output. The so-called mature student is a commonplace and over half our students are to be found in part-time courses proceeding at half speed. We have experimented with decentralised courses in other towns in our region, although the burden on an overworked faculty is such that I no longer favour this form of decentralisation. We are obliged, however, partly for local political reasons, to run part-time courses in our twin city some twenty-five miles away.

A type of decentralisation which now seems to have achieved permanence is, however, the distance course, intended to bring a university education within reach of those who, because of physical distance from a university town, employment or child rearing, for instance, are unable to benefit from the conventional type of course, whether full or part-time. The best known of all such distance teaching organisations is, of course, the British Open University, established to devote itself entirely to the needs of those unable, for various reasons, to pursue traditional university studies. This was conceived from the outset as a "University of the Air" and extensive use is made of the national radio and television networks as media of instruction.

In Sweden it was decided not to set up a separate institution to cater for distance teaching, but to decentralise the responsibility to the existing universities and their departments. While the Open University still, as far as I know, offers no foreign language courses in its curricula, the department of English in Linköping was one of the pioneers of distance education in Sweden, and we are now in our eleventh year of such activity. Since 1974, the number of language departments offering distance courses has grown from three to at least fifteen, some offering courses in more than one language. All such courses are part-time at half-speed or less.

As distance education would seem to offer various opportunities to use technical aids to compensate for the lack of face-to-face contact of the traditional course, and as our own courses rely heavily on especially the cassette recorder and the telephone, I decided to conduct a survey of the other departments recorded as offering distance courses. All returned the brief questionnaire which I submitted to them, and the results are summarised in the table.

| University | Subject or Dept. | No. of courses[1] | CASSETTE TAPES | | | TELEPHONE | | LOCAL RADIO/TV | | Video/ Computers Other | Sum of recorded uses |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | pre-recorded tapes | teacher commentaries | pupil assingments | contact | instruction | information | instruction | | |
| GOTHENBURG | English | 3 | X | | X | X | | | | | 3 |
| | Slavic | 3[2] | X | | | X | | | | | 2 |
| LINKÖPING | English | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | | | | 5 |
| | Swedish | 2[3] | | X | X | X | | | | | 3 |
| LUND | Russian | 2 | X | | | X | | | | | 2 |
| STOCKHOLM | English | 1 | | | | X | | | | | 1 |
| | Finnish | 1 | | | | X | | X | | | 2 |
| | German | 2 | | | X | X | | | | | 2 |
| | Swedish | 1[3] | | | | X | | | | | 1 |
| UMEÅ | English | 3 | X | X | | X | | | | | 3 |
| | Finnish | 1 | X | | | X | (X) | | | | 2 (3) |
| | French | 1 | X | | X | X | | | | | 3 |
| UPPSALA | English | 3 | X | | | X | X | | | | 3 |
| | French | 2 | X | | | X | | | | | 2 |
| | German | 3 | X | | | X | | | | | 2 |
| | Spanish | 1 | X | | | X | | | | | 2 |
| | Swedish | 1[3] | | | | X | | | | | 1 |
| Total | 17 | 32 | 11 | 3 | 5 | 17 | 2(3) | 1 | 0 | 0 | |

Notes: 1 Except where otherwise stated, the number of courses indicates the different levels (basic, continuation, advanced) at which the subject is offered. Each level is maximally equivalent to one semester of full-time studies (20 credits).
A full degree contains at least two subjects (120 credits).

2 Introductory courses in Russian, Bulgarian, Czech.

3 Courses in so-called "Practical Swedish". Also, at Linköping, in Swedish for Teachers of Immigrants.

I regard these findings as rather disappointing. Where I had hoped to discover someone making more adventurous use of media than my own department (we make no bones about stealing good ideas), it turns out that we are by far the greatest users of tape cassette and telephone, the only technical aids to be used at all. (Finnish in Stockholm uses local radio, but only to inform about coming courses.)

By far the commonest medium of distance education for all departments, including our own, is the printed word in prescribed books and study packages. This is, no doubt, as it should be. As one of my informants remarked, perhaps with some acidity, "the printed word isn't such a bad thing!" Nevertheless, the spoken word should not be ignored.

Apart from home study packages and self-instructional material, we, in common with all other distance departments, call our students to short intensive courses. (For a more detailed presentation of the various components of our distance courses, see N.F. Davies 1977.) Their frequency varies from twice a term, in our case, to once a month in the case of Spanish at Uppsala, for instance. One good reason for our greater use of media may well be that we have kept the use of face-to-face instruction to a minimum. I suspect that many of the other departments have done little more than concentrate the normal one to two evenings a week of a part-time, half-speed course to two or three days a month (usually at weekends), and have therefore felt little need to pioneer new methods.

If we look at the table in some detail, we will see that the only medium used by all is the telephone for pupil-teacher contact. This is no more than one might expect in a society as telephone conscious as Sweden. We have never had a student without access to a telephone. A previous investigation (Davies 1978) showed that roughly a third of students never rang their teachers, while 20% rang more than three times. Their phone calls are almost exclusively about such problems as inability to attend courses, changes in telephone tutorial times, or to seek study guidance in the face of changes in their domestic or employment situation which have greatly increased their work load.

The most common medium of instruction in the table is the prerecorded tape, used by 11 of the 17 subjects/departments. The amount of material recorded varies, the most common single use being in the field of pronunciation (9 of the 11). Other uses are for recorded lectures, listening comprehension and literary excerpts. All these uses are a feature of the distance courses of my own department, and we have, for instance, all the courses of lectures given in face-to-face instruction recorded for the benefit of distance students in such subjects as phonetics, history and civilisation, history of language, history of literature, and background lectures to set authors. These recordings are also much appreciated by regular students who miss a class and can either bring a tape for copying or listen in the language laboratory. We also economize on some part-time courses by supplying students with take-home cassettes instead of live lectures. This allows us to spend our limited budget on more interactive aspects of the course. In addition, after an initial diagnostic pronunciation test, our distance students are sent cassettes which train the specific features of pronunciation or prosody with which they have difficulty.

Only five departments record the use of cassette tapes for student assignments. In four cases these are for oral exercises or for pronunciation practice. In addition, our department and Umeå French require students to submit taped assignments. We also have taped assignments in history and civilization studies.

These assignments are, in our case, commented on and corrected on tape. We also accompany all returned assignments in grammar, written English and pronunciation with a taped, individualised commentary by the appropriate teacher. The *number* of corrected assignments for a distance student is lower than for those following conventional courses; for economic reasons we must make some use of self-correction with a key and printed commentary. But about once a fortnight the distance student will be receiving some piece of work that has a sound commentary on his or her errors. This is not only a useful form of individualisation, but it also serves to keep alive a sense of contact between student and teacher. Only two other departments record the use of cassette tapes for teacher correction, and in at least one of the cases, such use is sporadic rather than regular.

Finally, only Uppsala English and ourselves make regular, timetabled use of the telephone for tutorials. Umeå Finnish records sporadic, ad hoc use. While this is an expensive aspect of the course, both in telephone charges (which we pay) and in teacher time, we feel that it is well worth while. Four times during our basic course, only twice during our continuation course, we ring up the student at a pre-arranged time for a tutorial on a set book, read and carefully prepared according to instructions in the text course package. The discussion, in English of course, lasts some 30-40 minutes and is viewed very positively by the great majority of students. Those who live reasonably near the university are offered the alternative of a group discussion in the normal way, which saves us both time and money. But there is no doubt that the telephone tutorial offers the student an opportunity to talk freely and at length in English in a way that can scarcely be reproduced in face-to-face teaching, with the regrettably low staff-student ratio with which we have to contend.

We have considered using the group telephone or conferencing facility offered by the Swedish telephone authority, but have not so far pursued the idea. However, such use is reported from the distance education of class teachers in Pedagogics, Norwegian and Religious Studies conducted by Bodø Teachers Training College in the north of

Norway (Jarle 1982). This has been very positively evaluated by students, provided that the number involved at any one time is not excessive. The report writer recommends an optimum of 4-5 lines and a 60-minute discussion. This requires, however, careful regulation of turn-taking by the teacher if all are to feel satisfaction and an entirely free and spontaneous discussion is difficult to achieve so long as there is no visual contact between participants. The use of the conference facility in Bodø has meant an economic gain, as they have been able to reduce the travelling to local groups which is otherwise undertaken by the teacher.

In my survey, I included the use of radio, TV, video and computers, without expecting much response. Tape cassettes are preferable to radio for instruction, especially if the number of recipients is few, frequently beyond the reach of local radio stations, but not of national interest. I have, in fact, produced programmes for the national radio for which our distance students have received working material, but as these are not repeated from year to year, radio cannot be a permanent feature of a course. The same argument applies to television. There are many programmes in normal schedules that could form the basis of excellent language packages, but as they only occur once, it is not cost-effective to develop material around them.

Video, in these days when the home video player is becoming more and more common, might seem more attractive. Several respondents have noted the use of video on intensive courses, but none send out video tapes for home use. Given the high cost of video cassettes and of copying in large numbers, this is, unfortunately, also not surprising. However, if the copying problem can be overcome, one might envisage students submitting their own cassettes on to which programmes could be transferred from the departmental master tape, and which could be re-recorded with a series of programmes throughout the course. This is a facility which I hope in the near future to be able to offer students on a Business English course which we plan for 1985. I should also dearly like to see the Architectural History option which I teach, on offer to distance students.

As far as I have been able to discover, computers are not regularly used for any language instruction by any university department in Sweden. They are seen almost exclusively as a research tool. One would therefore hardly expect to see them in use for distance education. And yet—the home computer is much cheaper than the video recorder. Indeed, such is the disillusionment experienced by large numbers of home computer buyers, that our local paper carries many adverts each week from people only too happy to offload their white elephants at knock-down prices. Is it feasible to develop meaningful language programmes for the cheap home computer, now rarely used as anything but a plaything? Perhaps not. The computer must wait. Yet, compared with video, for instance, or the tape recorder, it has the great asset of being, within limitations, interactive.

My survey raises, in my mind at least, the not unimportant question: *Why* does it reveal so little use of technical aids to language learning? We are discussing advances in media techniques; we hear colleagues who are at the forefront of developments. Yet I suspect, indeed I know, that the vanguard is small, and it is a very long way ahead of the main body of troops. For many an ordinary footsoldier, indeed, the vanguard is clean out of sight. I have made telephone inquiries about the quality of media training given at some major teacher training establishments in Sweden. The picture is mixed, but there is little doubt that even today, the amount of hands-on experience, even at the level of pushing the right buttons, is far too small. A woodwork teacher spends much time learning the use, care and maintenance of a wide range of tools: not so the average language teacher. The authorities are currently devoting much money to in-service training of teachers in computer science. It is not language teachers, however, who are to be found on the courses. As there are so few language programmes commercially available, this is perhaps hardly surprising. And yet—no egg, no chicken.

There is, in other words, a need for a technical revolution among Arts graduates which goes deep and does not merely attract the gadgeteers.

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# Video in foreign language teaching:

Joe Hambrook

Much of the attention paid to video in foreign language teaching is focused upon a relatively small amount of commercially produced and distributed material. This paper briefly describes the development of this material in the EFL/ESL field; looks at some current issues and concerns, and considers future possibilities with particular reference to computer assisted interactive video.

Heelwat van die aandag wat video geniet as hulpmiddel by tweedetaalonderrig is toegespits op 'n relatief klein hoeveelheid kommersieel vervaardigde en verspreide materiaal. Hierdie artikel beskryf kortliks die ontwikkeling van bogenoemde materiaal waar dit Engels as tweede of vreemde taal betref. Verder word daar aandag gegee aan huidige tendense en toekomstige moontlikhede word oorweeg, met spesifieke verwysing na rekenaarondersteunde interaktiewe video.

## 1 **Introduction**

This paper is intended as a background note to the presentation of several video extracts. It is written from the point of view of a producer and publisher of commercially distributed video-based course materials for learners and teachers of English (EFL and ESL). Although language teaching by means of video, television and film is at least twenty-five years old, there is very little EFL/ESL material that can be considered as strictly commercial (that is, material that is made primarily to be *sold* to customers by producers and distributors who take risks in the expectation of revenue that will recover their original investment).

The very large body of non-commercial or public service video material in the field, such as the output of many television stations, has been excluded from this paper largely because its producers must usually disregard the opportunities open to the increasingly important non-broadcast market. In addition, while many public service organisations have provided essential co-sponsorship finance for commercial productions (e.g. German TV stations for several BBC projects, the British Council for BBC projects and for the recent *Video English* material), and some have begun to expect a fair proportion of their investment to be recovered from sales, they do not *need* to sell video material in order to survive. On a smaller scale, video material that is produced strictly for limited local use (e.g. for a college, or even for the students in a single class) has also been excluded, not because it has no value – it is often immensely valuable – but because it is different from commercially produced material in too many respects for it to be treated fairly within the scope of this short paper.

## 2 **Finance**

Financial constraints, although they will receive little attention here, are a perpetual problem for the commercial EFL/ESL video producer, who has to work on very limited budgets since television and video sales do not make much money and certainly do not make money fast. In fact, if it was not for occasional co-sponsorship finance which does not have to be recovered (or can be recovered slowly), much of the video material mentioned below would never have been produced at all.

## 3 **Early EFL/ESL video material**

Most of the early EFL/ESL video material was intended for broadcast transmission, largely because it was commercially viable only as a loss leader for the sale of accompanying textbooks. Moreover, although it was usually shot on film, effective use in the classroom was limited by the problems encountered by teachers when handling film prints and film projection equipment.

This material was often popular (the BBC's *Walter and Connie* series was broadcast in seventy-five countries and is still in use more than twenty years after it was produced), and it achieved much that is supposedly unique to video – to extend the range of contexts in which language can be presented to the learner, to isolate and focus upon specific items or features of language and language use, to motivate learning and to make language memorable by means of vivid images and action. However, the material was inflexible and unresponsive. The programme length and the style of presentation had to fit the patterns and conventions of public broadcasting. Worse still, learners at home and teachers in class had no control over the material. They could not stop it or repeat it or re-schedule it to suit their own requirements. Partly as a result, the accompanying textbooks could achieve only limited objectives and could not be effectively integrated with the video material. There were no genuine multi-media courses, in fact.

The same deficiencies are still, to some extent, features of any video material which must allow for broadcast transmission. However, there have been enormous improvements over the past ten years.

### 4 Recent developments

First, the technology of production (e.g. in terms of video editing and caption generating) has changed in ways that can help the EFL/ESL video producer. More important, the video recorder/player now provides a means of recording and presenting material which has added a new dimension of flexibility and has increased the range of uses from which learners (at home, with a teacher in a classroom, or in a self-access system) can benefit. Moreover, video hardware and software are much less costly than film, and as the market for them has grown the cost of using video has decreased dramatically.

Gradually a methodology of video use has emerged and continues to develop. This development is most obvious in classroom contexts. Whereas previously long stretches of film were projected in a darkened room, teachers now freeze the video picture, turn the sound down, play and repeat very short segments, and undertake activities with their students which make far more effective use of the video screentime available to them. These developments in technique and methodology are reflected in the types of materials now being produced in all media, and it now makes sense to refer to *multi*-media courses, with the material in each medium doing what is most appropriate.

### 5 Some current issues and concerns

One result of technological and methodological change has been the increasing concentration on certain issues and concerns on the part of course designers, writers, producers and, of course, their critics.

#### Authenticity

One of the main benefits often claimed for video is that it can show language in use in the real world. An objection to much EFL/ESL video material, from the very early days, has been that it is unnecessarily artificial, particularly in terms of dialogue and characterisation, and the newer uses of video have drawn even more attention to these features. It is widely felt that greater use of unscripted and untreated documentary interaction, and of material taken from existing television programmes not intended for language learning, can provide EFL/ESL material that is somehow more authentic.

This line of argument unfortunately disregards the fact that reality has to be controlled even in the most raw-looking documentary programme (e.g. in the way it is selectively shot or edited, or in the way participants are treated at times when they are not actually in front of the cameras), while the control exercised in most regular television production does not reflect an approach to authenticity which is any less objectionable than the control exercised in most EFL/ESL video production, though the regular TV producer may have a bigger budget and so be able to control reality with more refinement. Moreover, any ideal of authenticity must take account of what goes on in the classroom or in the self-instructional context as well as what is presented on the screen, where the newscast is logically the only programme format which can claim a kind of authenticity for *all* its contents.

Despite these reservations, the concern with authenticity has undoubtedly had a good effect on the way in which language is scripted and used in EFL/ESL video, and the extent to which stereotypes and other forms of conventional image are effectively exploited for language learning purposes.

### Cultural concerns

The increasingly discriminating uses of video have substantially confirmed that cultural aspects of language and language use are often conveyed with considerable force on the screen. It is therefore natural that course designers and others should want video to be a powerful instrument in developing language learners' awareness of important features of culture and culture-specific language use.

Attempts to build EFL/ESL materials around cultural features, or to highlight selected cultural details within individual scenes or segments, have not always been successful. Making such features too obvious easily renders them unrealistic and even ridiculous, while the desire to ensure culturally appropriate behaviour by specifying in detail what that behaviour should be puts the wrong kind of strain on actors and other participants, who are used to expressing their cultural identity and articulating its features without detailed prompting. Generally it is better for video producers to be attuned to significant cultural features and to manipulate their material sensitively to allow these features to make a suitable impression without undue distortion. A check-list approach seems to be more effective than an attempt to specify requirements in advance.

### Interactivity

Video is a powerful medium, and it is not surprising that people who use it to teach languages would like to see their students reacting and responding to what they see on the screen. In its most crude yet common manifestation, this technique involves making the student repeat what he/she hears or answer simple questions (with at least some relevance to what is shown on the screen, if he/she is reasonably lucky). The technique works (i.e. most students will repeat phrases or answer questions which are put to them), but is it interactive? Indeed, what exactly is *interactive video*, particularly in the context of computer assisted learning and video-disc applications?

In computer assisted language learning *without* video, interactivity can be defined simply as the relationship between the learner, a computer programme, a display screen or monitor and a keyboard or other means of using the programme. The addition of video makes a significant difference to this relationship, especially when the video images can be frozen at the exact point required, stepped forward frame by frame, accessed and repeated out of sequence, and integrated with visual input from the computer programme concerned. Yet what claims to be interactive video is commonly limited to activating individual direct responses to stimuli on the screen, backed up by admittedly impressive branching options, and systems of course management, assessment, and so on. This approach fails to take full advantage of what can be achieved by using *all* the media available, and fails to take account of the contexts in which learning takes place. In fact, interactive video can (and should) embrace a variety of approaches and methods.

### 6 A wider view of interactive video

Developments in video technology and computer assisted learning mean that elements of interactivity can be integrated into various course materials and their associated activities, and not restricted to a single medium or course component. For instance, a group discussion which is derived from a computer assisted task may lead to a decision to select a particular video segment to provide essential material for completing the group assignment. A business course student in a self-access system may leave his videodisc workstation to complete a memorandum requested (on videodisc) by a senior colleague, and then go back to check the consequences on videodisc. A learner at home may need to return to a short video segment several times for assistance in solving a problem or successfully completing a stage in a language course when perhaps the video does not tell a story but provides some of the elements which the learner constructs a story of his/her own. These are simple examples of ways in which a wider view of interactivity can be exploited.

### 7 Contexts of use

Careful consideration of the contexts in which materials might be used is essential for effective course design in interactive video. What are the constraints of the physical environment (in the learner's living room, in the classroom, and so on)? What is the relationship between the materials provided by the commercial producer or publisher and other materials or resources required (especially in terms of convenience and cost)? What difficult or unfamiliar demands are being put on the learner or teacher (taking into account that many teachers feel anxious or inadequate when confronted with even simple video material)? Indeed, interactive video material which may be acclaimed for its innovative approach may not be commercially viable or may turn out to be almost useless in the face of teacher intransigence or the high cost of additional resources directly associated with its use.

### 8 Current and future developments

It is not surprising that commercial producers and publishers move forward slowly and cautiously in the field of interactive video for EFL/ESL. Certainly BBC English by Television is taking a very gradual approach to interactivity, as the following examples show:

- Devising computer assisted extensions of existing EFL courses. Most of these are likely to be modest and will have no interactive video component.

- Planning for computer assisted material to be developed for new courses at some future date. This approach affects the way video material is scripted and produced, and has comparable effects on supporting materials too.

- Carrying out experimental work with existing EFL video material, both in linear and videodisc formats.

- Producing course material specifically designed for interactive video provided a market for it can be identified. So far this has resulted in a video-disc-based course for Japanese businessmen.

In the more distant future, there are many exciting possibilities, such as developing new uses of linear video material in association with computer technology, producing an EFL/ESL dictionary on videodisc (with compressed audio), constructing data banks directly associated with cultural aspects of language learning, using interactive video for testing and assessment, introducing speech recognition devices into language learning. All these possibilities depend, however, on building up a sufficiently large market.

***Men have not proven themselves equal, because they have not been given equal opportunities.***

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# Radio language teaching in Kenyan schools

## Maurice Imhoof

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The Radio Language Arts Project in Kenya is currently testing the feasibility of using radio intensively to serve as the major medium of English instruction in the formal classroom setting. The project, now in its third and final year of lesson development and experimentation, is evaluating the effectiveness of radio in teaching English to children in the first three primary grades. The thirty-minute, daily broacasts are part of the normal school curriculum. Preliminary results show substantial achievement gains by the radio students and strong support from school personnel. The project demonstrates that carefully designed, written, and produced radio lessons, aided by human interaction fostered by a teacher or other guide, can be an effective alternative to more complex and more costly techniques.

In Kenia word die uitvoerbaarheid daarvan om die radio intensief te gebruik as die belangrikste medium by die onderrig van Engels in die formele klassituasie, getoets deur projek "Radio Language Arts". Die projek, wat tans in sy derde en finale jaar van lesontwikkeling en eksperimentasie verkeer, evalueer die doeltreffendheid van die radio in Engels-onderrig aan kinders in die eerste drie jaar van die primêre skool. Die halfuur lange, daaglikse uitsendings vorm deel van die normale kurrikulum. Voorlopige resultate vertoon aansienlike winste in die prestasies van radio-leerlinge en 'n sterk aanhang deur personeel. Die projek demonstreer dat noukeurig ontwerpte, geskrewe en uitgevoerde radio-lesse, ondersteun deur menslike interaksie in die vorm van 'n onderwyser of gids, 'n doeltreffende alternatief kan wees vir meer ingewikkelde en duur metodes.

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### 1 Overview

The Radio Language Arts Project (RLAP) is a research and development project designed to test the feasibility of using radio as the major medium of instruction in teaching English in the first three primary grades. (The project is a joint venture between Kenya and the United States. The Kenyan executing agency is the Kenya Institute of Education, as authorised by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. The American executing agency is the Academy for Educational Development, under contract to the United States Agency for International Development. Major funding comes from USAID.) The primary significance of the RLAP for the study of media and language teaching is its emphasis on the intensive use of radio to serve as the major medium of instruction in the formal classroom setting. The project, now in its third and final year of lesson development, is systematically evaluating the effectiveness of formal, intensive radio programmes in teaching English as a foreign language to young children. The techniques used to achieve these results are being carefully documented, since there is little hard evidence or detailed methodological description of successful radio language teaching available in the literature at present.

Language programmes are broadcast as part of the normal school curriculum during school hours. The daily thirty-minute lessons fit into the regular English period in the school time-table. Although radio is the major medium of instruction, teachers play an important role during the broadcasts, and in pre- and post-broadcast activities. The radio lessons are designed to assist teachers in the classroom, enhancing their effectiveness in teaching a difficult and important skill.

The project design draws on the results of several relevant projects in other countries, most particularly a radio-based primary-school mathematics project conducted between 1973 and 1978 in Nicaragua, Central America (Friend, Searle & Suppes 1980). It also builds on Kenya's extensive experience with educational broadcasts to schools which use radio in a supplementary rather than intensive role.

## 2 **Research design**

The RLAP research design uses a sample of thirty-one schools drawn from seven linguistic districts. Given the supposed importance of mother tongue as a variable in learning English, the districts chosen represent the major language groups and approximately seventy percent of the Kenya population. Schools were chosen by means of a stratified random sample on the basis of performance on the standardised primary school leaving examination, with equal representation from high, medium and low scoring schools.

The thirty-one project schools are divided into two groups. Ten schools are designated as observation schools in which radio lessons are observed to identify instructional problems with the radio lessons. The other twenty-one schools—three from each district—are used to test the effectiveness of the lessons in improving pupil performance.

### 2.1 **Formative evaluation**

Formative evaluation is an integral part of the instructional development process. It applies a technique developed by the Radio Mathematics Project based on the feedback system used in industry to control continuous processes (Friend 1980). As applied in the RLAP, this model is labelled the feedforward revision system to underscore its emphasis on improving instruction through changes to future lessons. A team of two observers (professionals from the field working with the project on a part-time basis) is assigned to each of the ten observation schools. They observe three lessons each week, completing an observation form developed by the project staff which focuses attention on the instructional methodology (teacher performance, pupil participation, common mistakes, and so on). They also talk to teachers and headmasters. The RLAP staff, which writes and produces the radio lessons, also observes once a week. Every Friday, the observers administer an achievement test which focuses on objectives that have been introduced or maintained during the week.

Formative evaluation data are compiled, analysed, and summarised by the RLAP research specialist, who then presents the results to his colleagues. Problems are discussed and decisions are made about correction. In some cases, a specific problem will be solved by writing a limited number of segments to correct it. In other cases, a general concern will be raised, which may result in a new instructional design principle to be applied throughout future lessons.

When serious problems arise, of course, decisions are made to change lessons that have already been recorded. A segment which is observed to fail completely, leaving pupils confused and not participating, would evoke such a decision. But the emphasis of the feedforward formative evaluation process is on revisions to future materials. This requires that the instructional design principles on which materials are based be carefully validated to ensure that problems are the exception rather than the rule.

Before regular broadcasts began, the RLAP spent more than a year developing pilot radio lessons based on tentative principles about the most effective use of radio for teaching English as a foreign language, testing those lessons in classrooms, evaluating the results, revising the design principles, and so on. The result was a reasonable certainty that the radio lessons would be generally successful without an unacceptably high level of revision. In practice, this has proved to be the case. The radio lessons work well, and those problems identified by formative evaluation have been corrected without undue difficulty.

### 2.2 **Summative evaluation**

The project uses a set of twenty-one schools for both control and experimental purposes, administering a post-test after one year to children who have not been exposed to the treatment and the next year to children in the same grade or standard who have been exposed to the radio lessons. This lapped-year design was chosen for two major reasons. The paucity of reliable data on school, teacher and pupil quality, made any attempt to construct a comparable set of control and experimental schools impossible. The lapped-year design should ensure a closer match between control and experimental groups at the same schools than would be the case if two different sets of schools were used.

The second reason is that the lapped-year design completely avoids the problem of contamination of control schools. Control groups are tested before the broadcasts to their grade or standard begin, so there is no chance that they can be exposed to the treatment—the radio lessons— unintentionally.

The summative evaluation strategy for one classroom (the basic unit of analysis) is summarized in the following table.

**Summative Evaluation Design for One Classroom**

| Year | Radio Classrooms (experimental) | Control Classrooms (control) |
|---|---|---|
| 1981<br>(no broadcasts)<br>Classroom 1 | | School A<br>Classroom 1<br>Teacher X<br>Pupil cohort alpha |
| 1982<br>(standard 1<br>broadcasts) | School A<br>Classroom 1<br>Teacher X<br>Pupil cohort beta | School A<br>Classroom 2<br>Teacher Y<br>Pupil cohort alpha |
| 1983<br>(standard 2<br>broadcasts) | School A<br>Classroom 2<br>Teacher Y<br>Pupil cohort beta | School A<br>Classroom 3<br>Teacher Z<br>Pupil cohort alpha |
| 1984<br>(standard 3<br>broadcasts) | School A<br>Classroom 3<br>Teacher Z<br>Pupil cohort beta | |

In November 1981, pupils in the alpha cohort in classroom 1 of this school (school A), having been taught for a year by teacher X without the radio English lessons, were given a post-test based on the Kenyan syllabus. Results from this test provided a pupil achievement record for the control group. In November, 1982, the same test was administered to pupils in the beta cohort. These children had spent a year in the same classroom (classroom 1) with the same teacher (teacher X), but with the radio English lesson treatment. Their test results provided a pupil achievement record for the experimental group. The amount of time devoted to English each week was held constant from 1981 to 1982. A comparison of results between the control and experimental groups (as indicated by the arrow) was then used to evaluate the effectiveness of this use of instructional radio (Academy for Educational Development 1981).

The same pattern was followed during 1983 and 1984. Pupil achievement and other variables will be measured in one year for control purposes and in the subsequent year, after treatment, for experimental purposes. The same control and experimental cohorts of children will be followed because the RLAP is interested in cumulative results (that is the effects of three years of radio-based instruction versus three years of conventional instruction).

Other methods of evaluating the project are also being used. For example, questionnaires distributed to teachers and headmasters at the end of each broadcast year measure attitudes towards the radio method on the part of school staff. Information about each school (such as repeater and drop-out rates, and attendance) is being gathered for future analysis. Finally, a cost-effectiveness analysis will be undertaken to consider the costs of delivering radio-based English instruction compared to the costs of delivering conventional instruction. The costs of radio-based instruction will also be compared to pupil performance.

## 3 Radio lessons

The radio lessons are based on the Kenyan English syllabus, that is the lessons use the same linguistic content (vocabulary, structures) specified for all Kenyan government school pupils. The sequencing of the linguistic items has been changed in order to use radio more effectively, however.

The thirty-minute lessons have a standard format.

Each lesson is divided into major blocks of time and content, and each block is divided into smaller segments. A segment may take as little as ten to fifteen seconds, or as much as a few minutes. A block may consist of up to four segments lasting five or six minutes altogether. A typical block might consist of a transition segment, an instructional segment introducing new material, a song or game segment, and finally a short drill segment. All these might have a central linguistic point, for example, learning how to talk about events that took place in the past.

A fixed portion of air time is planned and allotted to each block and segment so that script writers know exactly how much material they have to produce for scripts each day and how much time they have to teach a particular item. Writing assignments are divided among the members of the writing team by means of these blocks and segments.

In addition to a standard format, a standard group of characters is used each year. In year two for example, *Safiri* and *Tina* are the designated programme co-hosts. They also interact with other characters in a typical rural community and with the children in the classroom. Another featured couple, *Sara* and *Rono*, keep a little shop where some of the language exchanges take place. The main secondary characters are the *Hamisi* family – mother, father, son and daughter, grandmother, grandfather, an aunt and an uncle.

The settings most often used in the broadcasts are *Sara* and *Rono's* shop, the *Hamisi* family's house and community, and the classroom. The characters are used to give reality to the language use. New vocabulary and grammar are introduced in a social context that helps illustrate the meaning of the language.

The instructional segments are of course the heart of the lessons. New material is introduced and practised in one or two segments. Previously introduced material is maintained through direct and conscious practice in two additional segments. These initial and maintenance segments make up the major portion of the lessons.

In the first year, considerable attention is paid to listening skills. Pupils are expected to respond physically to language cues even before they can speak complete sentences of their own. There is considerable directed physical activity and a great deal of repetition built into drills, songs, and games.

Mother tongue is never spoken by the radio characters. Since Kenya has such a linguistic diversity, only English is used in the radio broadcast. The classroom teacher is directed by the radio to give explanations in the mother tongue when it is felt absolutely necessary. As the children gain language ability, there is less and less reliance on mother tongue directions and explanations.

The radio lessons introduce meaning through specific language and sound effects in communication settings. Even difficult linguistic concepts are introduced by the radio with the help of visual effects carried out in the classroom by the children. The concepts of *more* and *less* water, for example, are demonstrated by two pupils holding bottles filled in advance of the broadcast by the classroom teacher to represent more and less. The radio exercise then ensures that pupils understand the meaning and can speak sentences related to the situation.

A typical instructional segment, then, begins with a context for the language use. Next, the radio characters model the language. Then some form of practice is directed by the radio. Finally, the radio characters reinforce the correct responses. The classroom teacher helps model the children's behaviour but is never required to provide a language model for the children during the broadcasts. The language used in the broadcasts is academic English, that is language that is most useful in receiving instruction and reading textbooks in all subjects. Informal language is used in the family and community situations, but the linguistic content and the language functions are directly transferable to classroom learning through the medium of English.

The principal blocks of instruction over a period of several days contain the following types of activities which are familiar to language teachers:

- choral and individual question-and-answer exchanges between students and the radio

- structured conversation between the radio and the class or individuals

- nonverbal responses to radio language cues
- dialogues or stories that engage the pupils as participants
- reading aloud and silently from worksheets and the blackboard
- displaying and manipulating common classroom objects
- songs and games, and
- pattern drils.

## 4 Preliminary results

Initial results are now available from the first year achievement tests and from the questionnaire distributed to teachers and headmasters after the first year of broadcasting. They show substantial achievement gains and strong support from school personnel (Owino & Christensen 1983).

The year one achievement test consisted of forty questions measuring listening comprehension, based on English vocabulary and structures specified by the Kenyan syllabus. The test was developed by project staff with the help of outside consultants. It was administered at the end of 1981 to children in twenty-one project schools who had not heard the RLAP radio lessons. Exactly the same test was given to children in the same twenty-one project schools at the end of 1982. These children had used the radio method to learn English.

Although reading was not introduced in the grade one radio lessons until term three, children learning English by radio showed a 22.5% gain over children in the conventional classes. The results for listening comprehension were even more favourable. Radio pupils showed a 50% gain. In other words, the intensive radio method of teaching English produced substantial gains in pupil performance after only one year of broadcasts. Improvement was found in every district and every vernacular language group represented in the project, and for schools scoring high, medium and low on the national primary school leaving examination.

The questionnaires completed by teachers and headmasters showed that the radio English lessons have been very well received.

- 89% of those expressing an opinion rated the radio lessons as "good" or "excellent". No one rated them "poor".
- 99% of those responding felt that the radio pupils spoke better English after one year than pupils who had not had the radio lessons. 90% felt that the radio pupils would be ready to use English as the sole medium of instruction after standard three.

These first year results along with anecdotal evidence from schools strongly suggest that intensive instructional radio will prove to be an effective tool for teaching English to rural primary school children. Pupils have already demonstrated significant gains in listening and reading comprehension. Teachers, headmasters and parents are convinced that this method works. They see an improvement in their children's English, and they want to continue with the project.

## 5 Conclusion

The Radio Language Art Project in Kenya, demonstrates that radio can be used effectively in teaching language at the primary level in a rural setting. The implications for the developing world, where human and material resources are scarce or poorly distributed, is obvious. Implications of this project for European and North American language educators are less dramatic, but the strengths of radio to reach certain target audiences is one significant conclusion from the Kenya project. Carefully designed, written, and produced radio lessons, aided by human interaction fostered by a teacher or other guide, can be an effective alternative to the more complex and more expensive newer technologies. In addition to being less threatening to teachers, simpler technologies such as radio may be less confusing and more effective for learners.

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***THE ACCELERATING advance of humanity in history shows there is no end to the possibilities for transformation.***
***Science is constantly shrinking the realm of the impossible.***
***If something is true in theory, it must also be true in practice.***
***The dreams of men have no limit.***
***Events have always surpassed the most imaginative conceptions of the future.***
***We will never imagine anything quite as fantastic as reality.***
***Reality is revolutionary.***
***The most revolutionary of all.***

# New publications ... Nuwe publikasies

**Reviews**

**David Corson**

The Lexical Bar. Oxford: Pergamon. 1985. (117pp.)

This book examines the role played by the vocabulary of English as a mediating factor in educational success and failure.

The book is exploratory. Corson sees language as the central achievement necessary for success in schooling, since achievement depends on the child's ability to display knowledge (p.1.). He draws on Bruner, Austin and Popper in establishing the centrality of language in intellectual development and cognitive processing, and then proceeds in a very disciplined way through three stages. The first is problem identification. In the second stage, a tentative theory is postulated. In the third stage, the validity of this theory is examined by means of error elimination tests, and it is then reformulated. In a climate often bedevilled by unproductive controversy, Corson would like to see educational research fostering review and improvement through disciplined criticism. He is merely setting the first cycle in motion.

There are nine chapters. In the first, the need for a cross-disciplinary theory is established. Chapter two articulates insights from a range of disciplines in a tentative formulation of such a theory. The main points are:

- There are many word meanings we can hardly do without if we want to communicate readily within specialist knowledge areas.
- It is a characteristic of English that most of its specialist vocabulary is Graeco-Latin in origin.
- Such specialist words begin to enter children's performance vocabulary, if at all, during adolescence.
- Many words in English possess characteristics that make them seem bizarre, highbrow and difficult to language users who are not exposed to early and regular contact with them.
- The closed-role system of some peer groups may cause the specialist vocabularies of the school to be regarded with contempt and aversion.
- Some language users do not identify with some vocabularies.
- Structuring patterns play a role in verbal storage systems in the brain; words may be analysed by access codes into units consisting of their bases or stems, with affixes stripped.
- Some variations at quantitative and qualitative levels are reported in research on social group lexical selection.
- Marked educational improvements have been reported for children who have followed programmes focusing on the etymology and word relationships of English.

In short, it means that there is a lexical bar in the English lexicon which makes it difficult for some groups to have access to the semantically precise knowledge categories which are essential for understanding the secondary school curriculum.

Chapter three provides a fascinating historical account of the erection and maintenance of the lexical bar through educatonal and social means and of the implications it has had for social and intellectual advancement.

In Chapter four, Corson shows that the lexical bar is currently reinforced because the young speakers of some social groups do not "identify" with certain sets of words because their social background makes them view these as irrelevant.

Chapter five marks the start of the third stage. It records Corson's empirical investigations in Britain and Australia aimed at testing the lexical bar theory. He developed two measuring instruments for the purpose: the Measure of Passive Vocabulary and the G-L Instrument. He also used cloze. The procedures adopted are carefully outlined and the findings presented. Although these findings do not establish a clear cause and effect relationship, they do document a strong link between an active written and oral access to the specialist lexis of English and educational success or failure.

Language planners and those involved in curriculum studies should take careful note of chapter six. Evidence of the ability to use words remains and should remain a principal instrument of evaluation within the educational selection process. However, this should highlight for us certain hidden inequities within the education system. A telling illustration is provided on p.81 in the answers to the same question given by two pupils of matched reasoning ability. One pupil seems decidedly inferior in reasoning ability to the other because his answer lacks precision, explicitness and syntactic cohesion. He is a victim of the lexical bar. Ways must be found of giving access to alternative conceptual frameworks so that pupils like this will not mistakenly be viewed as innately inferior and unsuitable for further education. This may involve allowing more time at high school for children whose social or cultural backgrounds place them at a disadvantage, as they may accelerate in their lexical development a year or two later than others.

Chapter seven is largely exploratory. It focuses on the relationship between lexical structuring patterns and verbal storage systems in the brain. Researchers will find that Corson provides a useful overview of psycholinguistics in presenting his model of the arrangement of the mental lexicon.

In chapter eight he explores the ways in which processing difficulties may hinder even passive vocabulary acquisition and suggests ways in which an individual's learning of polymorphemic words may be made easier. He firmly contends that the crucial factor is a learning environment which provides stimulating and appropriate non-linguistic experiences, affording rich encounters with words in context so their rules may be deduced. This view will be of special interest to proponents of English Across The Curriculum and those teaching technical and scientific subjects—to all who have seen the role that comprehension plays in success or failure.

Chapter nine presents a revised theory of the lexical bar which accords a role to ethnicity, questioning social class as an accurate predictor of lexical orientation on its own. It also indicates that word learning is not affected by the etymological provenance of words, and that there is more to difficult texts than that they contain words difficult in access. Words of Graeco-Latin origin principally but not exclusively present processing difficulties in the mental lexicon. However, a rich language environment in the school could promote all children's lexical sophistication.

This book provides a useful model for research and presents exciting challenges to researchers and policy makers. My one quibble is that a book which offers such useful insights into the lexical bar should itself be unnecessarily obscure. It is difficult to read.

E. Ridge

**William Rowlinson**

*Personally Speaking ... Teaching Languages for Use*. Oxford University Press: 1985. (Paperback, 150 pp.)

This book attempts to re-assess the objectives of second language teaching today. Although the author uses the various French courses taught in Britain as the basis of his study, most of his criticism and conclusions are relevant to second language courses generally, including those in South Africa.

From the sub-title: *Teaching Languages for Use*, it is apparent that Rowlinson favours a communicative approach. However, this book does not suggest new ways of teaching communicatively, but attempts to give a perspective of old as well as more recent methods in the light of the professed aims of second language teaching. For this reason, it is divided into two parts: *Ends* and *Means*.

In Part one, *Ends*, the author identifies what he considers to be the major problem in second language teaching today: "the lack of clarity about where we are going, and how, and even why". What we teach depends on why we are teaching it. Thus he concludes that the only lasting motivation on the part of pupils is "the knowledge that the skills they have learnt can be used to some personal profit". He identifies several shortcomings in previous language courses (e.g. "the lack of personal involvement of the learner"), stressing the need for course differentiation. Some important issues raised are the role of grammar ("it seems clear that the long-term learner will need an explanatory framework of grammar, whether his course materials are explicitly organized to help him develop this progressively or not") and the comparative importance of the spoken and written word ("almost all language teachers would agree ... that ability to use the written word for all except a tiny minority of learners is a goal useless in its own right").

In the second chapter: *The Historical Ball and Chain*, Rowlinson criticises those who hold the "progressive" view that modern language teaching practice is automatically an improvement on what has gone before. He demonstrates that much of what is supposedly "new" is often merely a variation of an older method, and concludes that "methods and materials are necessarily a reflection of aims and purposes which in turn lie in the changing structure and values of the society around us".

Chapter three, on the role of language learning in the school curriculum, suggests various contributions that a second language course should make to the pupils' overall education, such as the development of an aesthetic sense and the elimination of cultural chauvinism.

It is, however, in the second part of the book, *Means*, that Rowlinson addresses himself to practical considerations of second language teaching. He devotes separate chapters to a discussion of three second language (French) courses: the language experience course, the specialist course, and the more advanced 'sixth form' course. In the first of these, he suggests a basic functional approach consisting of three overlapping stages: input, reproduction of new material and autonomous use of new material. He also provides examples of pair work and language games for use in the third stage.

The specialist course should aim at making English a usable tool for students, and the author outlines various ways of achieving this goal. The advanced course, he feels, should introduce the second language as it is spoken by mother-tongue speakers, and the student should now use the spoken word not just for everyday exchanges, but also to express ideas, put forward opinions and sustain an argument.

In the chapter on the problems of language testing, the author advocates tests based on listening and oral communication, in order to bring the examination system more into line with the objectives of language teaching. He also discusses the merits of using intensive and extensive reading in this regard.

The chapter on classroom aids, although relevant, offers nothing original and its inclusion is hardly justified. In the last chapter, various ways of putting language to use beyond the classroom are suggested.

*Personally Speaking* is a book which should prove useful to new and experienced teachers alike, but especially to those who have lost perspective and need some of their old beliefs re-affirmed, while at the same time extending their vision. No biographical details concerning the author are supplied, but I can recommend his work for its sensible ideas and logical arguments, presented clearly and concisely in carefully linked chapters. In short, a very readable and thought-provoking book.

J.J. Swartz

**Michael Swan**

*Basic English Usage*. Oxford University Press: 1984. (Paperback, 288 pp.)

*Basic English Usage* is a shortened and simplified version of Michael Swan's *Practical English Usage*. The author describes his book as "a practical guide to common problems in English grammar and usage" for use by "foreign students who would like to know more about English, and who want to avoid mistakes". It contains 370 short entries which attempts to explain, in fairly simple language, those parts of English grammar and vocabulary that ESL and EFL students are most likely to find confusing.

After reading the author's introduction, in which he explains his aims and the organization of the book, I was a little sceptical about whether this volume served any need that had not already been catered for by previous publications such as Eckersley and Eckersley's *A Comprehensive English Grammar for Foreign Students* or Thomson and Martinet's *A Practical English Grammar*. However, a study of some of its articles convinced me that this book has a great deal to recommend it. Firstly, it is not a grammar at all, but a dictionary of problems. The items are listed alphabetically (from *Abbreviations* to *Would rather*) and not presented in chapters under such general headings as 'Nouns', 'Conjunctions' or 'Tenses'. Any apparent disadvantage that this approach may cause is more than offset by careful cross-referencing and an extremely detailed index. For this reason, articles on *specific* problem areas can quickly be found (there is also a complete list of entries at the front of the book). For example, students who have problems with the use of the subjunctive will easily find an article on the general use of this mood, with cross-references to articles on the specific use of *wish* and the use of *if* with 'ordinary' and 'special' tenses. Each explanation is clearly illustrated with several example sentences.

A second difference between this volume and conventional grammars is the author's minimal use of grammatical terminology. The terms he has used are explained in a brief glossary at the front. A phonetic alphabet has also been provided.

A special feature of this book is its attractive design. This is achieved by the use of two colours, different type-settings to highlight specific points, and simple but clear illustrations. Where functional, the author has drawn attention to incorrect usage and placed such examples next to the correct forms.

On first impression, the book appears to be no more than a handy reference work for ESL teachers, covering a large number of anticipated problem areas. However, I am convinced that its particular format will appeal also to students and that they will be both willing and able to use it unassisted.

On the other hand, therein may also lie one of the book's weaknesses. As a result of over-simplification, some of the articles leave questions unanswered and problems unsolved. Inevitably certain areas have been treated too superficially to be of real use to the student. In this event, the student is referred to Swan's more authoritative volume: *Practical English Usage*.

The author is careful to distinguish between British and American English and between formal and informal language use. In addition to the many useful examples illustrating regular language forms, many examples of relevant exceptions have been included, especially in the various articles on prepositions. Where necessary, problems of pronunciation have also been elucidated.

The word 'basic' in the title indicates at what level an ESL student would find this book useful. Teachers will appreciate the painstaking effort that has gone into its preparation and its extensive coverage of problem areas. A book of exercises giving practice in the various points explained in this volume, is soon to be published.

In sum, the book lives up to the expectations created in the introduction, and ESL teachers at various levels should find it a very useful aid in their approach to remedial work.

J.J. Swartz

# Conferences, courses and meetings Konferensies, kursusse en byeenkomste

1986

**University of Cambridge: English Summer Institute**

Place: University of Cambridge
Date: 7 July-1 August
Contact: The International Division
University of Cambridge Board of Extra-mural Studies
Madingley Hall
Madingley
Cambridge CB3 8AQ

**TESOL Summer Institute**

Place: University of Hawaii, Manoa
Date: 7 July-15 August
Contact: Pamela Pine, Assistant Director
TESOL Summer Institute
Department of English as a Second Language
University of Hawaii
1890 East-West Road
Honolulu, Hawaii 96822
USA

**Annual Meeting of the American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)**

Place: Berlin (West)
Date: 30 July - 2 August
Contact: AATG
523 Building, Suite 201
Rt. 38, Cherry Hill NJ 08034
USA

**Twentieth Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-Cultural Communication)**

Place: Rabat, Morocco
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: A. Lahjomri
Mohamed V University
Rabat
Morocco

**Seventy-first World Congress of Esperanto**

Place: Beijing, People's Republic of China
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: World Association of Esperanto
Nieuwe Binnenweg 176
BL-3015 BJ Rotterdam
The Netherlands

**Conference of the American Association of Teachers of French (AATF)**

Place: Montreal, Canada
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: AATF
57 East Armory Avenue
Champaign IL 61820
USA

**American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP)**

Place: Madrid, Spain
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: J Chatham
State University
Department of Foreign Languages
Mississippi State MS 39762
USA

### Twentieth Congress of the International Association of Logopedics (IALP)

Place: Tokyo, Japan
Date: 3-7 August
Contact: Simul International
Kowa Building no. 9
1-8-10 Akasaka
Minato-ku
Tokyo 107
Japan

### Eighth World Congress of the International German Teachers' Association (IDV)

Place: Berne, Switzerland
Date: 4-9 August
Contact: Eurocentres
Seestrasse 247
CH-8038 Zürich
Switzerland

### Thirteenth World Congress of the International Association of Teachers of Russian Language and Literature (MAPRYAL)

Place: Budapest, Hungary
Date: 11-16 August
Contact: MAPRYAL
Gorkij fasor 45
1406 Pf. Budapest VII
Hungary

### Sixth International Conference of Nordic and General Linguistics

Place: Helsinki, Finland
Date: 18-22 August
Contact: M. Tandefelt
Nordica
Helsingfors Universitet
Regeringsgatan 11
SF-00100
Helsingfors 10
Finland

### Eleventh International Conference on Computational Linguistics

Place: Bonn, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 25-29 August
Contact: W Lenders
IKP Universität
Poppelsdorfer Allee 47
D-5300 Bonn 1
Federal Republic of Germany

### First Brazilian Congress in Applied Linguistics

Place: Campinas, Brazil
Date: 31 August - 4 September
Contact: Angela B. Kleiman
Universidade Estadual de Campinal
Departmamento de Linguistica
Aplicada
Caixa Postal 6045
13 100 Campinas
SP Brazil

### International Conference on Information Technology in Higher Education (ITHE)

Place: University of Glasgow
Date: 2-5 September 1986
Contact: The Director
Courses Department
The British Council
65 Davies Street
London W Y 2AA
United Kingdom

### The Management of Information Technology in Higher Education: an International Seminar. Course 661

Place: Loch Lomond, Scotland
Date: 7-12 September
Contact: The Director
Courses Department
The British Council
65 Davies Street
London W Y 2AA
United Kingdom

**Association for French Language Studies: Quel(s) francais enseigner?**

Place: Newcastle upon Tyne, England
Date: 19-21 September
Contact: G.E. Hare
Department of French Studies
University of Newcastle upon Tyne
NEI 7RV
England

**International Association for Applied Linguistics (AILA) Commission on Educational Technology Symposium**

Place: Bonn, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: tba (Autumn)
Contact: V.A. Borowsky
Bendorfer Weg 16
D-5000 Köln 91
Federal Republic of Germany

**Conference for Foreign Language Teachers**

Place: Youngstown, Ohio
Date: 24-25 October
Contact: Conference of Foreign Languages
Youngstown State University
Youngstown OH 44555

**"Computers in Language Research and Language Learning"**

Place: Urbana, Illinois
Date: 25-26 October
Contact: Lyle F. Bachman
DESL
3070 Foreign Language Building
707 South Mathews Avenue
Urbana IL 61801

**International Conference on Second and Foreign Language Acquisition by Children**

Place: Dallas, Texas
Date: 19-20 November
Contact: R.A. Benya
East Central University
Ada OK 74820
USA

**Conference of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)**

Place: Dallas, Texas
Date: 21-25 November
Contact: ACTFL
P O Box 408
Hastings-On-Hudson NY 10706
USA

**Twelfth Annual International Conference on Teaching and Learning**

Place: Seirei Gakuen, Hamamatsu
Date: 22-24 November
Contact: JALT
c/o Kyoto English Center
Sumitomo Seimei Building
8 F Shijo-Karasuma Nishi-iru
Shimogyo-ku
Kyoto 600
Japan

1987

**Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**

Place: Columbus, Ohio
Date: 9-12 April
Contact: Slavic Department
The Ohio State university
232 Cunz Hall
1841 Millikin Road
Columbus OH 43210
USA

**Twenty-first Annual Conference of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)**

Place: Hollywood, Florida
Date: 28 April - 3 May
Contact: TESOL Central Office
201 DC Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington D C 20057
USA

**Seventy-second World Congress of Esperanto**

Place: Warsaw, Poland
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: World Association of Esperanto
Nieuwe Binnenweg 176
NL-3015 BJ Rotterdam
The Netherlands

**Eighth World Congress of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA)**

Place: Sydney, Australia
Date: 16-21 August
Contact: Prof. Dr. J. Nivette
Vrije Universiteit
Pleinlaan 2
B-1050 Brussels
Belgium

**Twenty-second Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-Cultural Communication)**

Place: Brussels, Belgium
Date: tba (Autumn)
Contact: S. Cornil
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Blandijnberg 2
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**Sources of information**

FIPLV *World News*, No. 38(4) May 1985

FIPLV *World News*, No. 39(5) September 1985

TESOL *Newsletter*, Vol. 19(5) October 1985

# Guidelines for contributors

1 The focus of the journal is on issues of language teaching, learning and acquisition, especially as related to communicative needs of multicultural, multi-lingual Southern Africa.

Authors are invited to submit contributions (only one original copy is required) on

- language acquisition and second or foreign language teaching and learning
- language courses for special or general purposes
- cross-cultural communication
- the effect of language teaching and learning on productivity and human relations
- technology in language teaching and learning
- innovative approaches to language teaching and learning, and
- training and in-service training programmes.

2 All contributions must be directed to

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University of Stellenbosch
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Republic of South Africa

3 Frequency of publication: once each semester.

4 Language of publication: English or Afrikaans.

5 Format of manuscripts for publication: Typewritten, double-spaced throughout, on one side of the paper, with two and a half centimetres of margin at the left. Footnotes should be avoided and essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped at the end of the article. References for an article should not be interspersed with notes. A standard format (Harvard method) for complete references is to be used.

6 Authors' full names and complete mailing addresses should appear on the first page of each article.

7 When an article is published by a group of authors under the name of an organization, the name and address of each author should be provided.

8 In cases where the author's surname might not be readily recognizable (e.g. if the conventions of a non-English language cause the author's surname to precede the first name), surnames should be clearly marked through the use of italics, capitalization, etc.

9 The inclusion of an English abstract for each article is required.

10 The deadline for submitting articles for the first semester edition is the 30th of September of the previous year; articles for the issue of the second semester must be received before 31st of March of the previous year.

11 Articles should, as a rule, not exceed 20 pages of A4-format paper. Longer contributions might be considered for special issues of PER LINGUAM.

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17 Special requirements

17.1 A brief double-spaced biographical statement that includes the author's professional status, address, etc. must be provided.

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When you cite your own previous publications, reference must be made to them in the third person: not "as I said in my article on Suggestopedia", but "as L. Botha said in his article on Suggestopedia". Upon acceptance of your manuscript, the editorial staff will convert the third person citations to the first person.

*No task is harder than the establishment of a society ruled by the principles of christianity.*
*Many are those who struggle to achieve just that.*
*That struggle is not useless.*
*If so, it would be meaningless.*

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1 Die tydskrif fokus op taalonderrig, taalaanleer en taalverwerwing, veral met betrekking tot die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van 'n veelvolkige, veeltalige Suidelike Afrika.

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5 Formaat van manuskripte vir publikasie: Getik in dubbelspasiëring aan een kant van die bladsy, met 'n kantlyn van twee en 'n half sentimeter aan die linkerkant. Voetnote moet sover moontlik vermy word en noodsaaklike notas moet in die teks genommer word en aan die einde van die teks verskyn. Verwysings moet geen notas bevat nie en moet ook aan die einde verskyn. Die Harvardmetode moet vir volledige verwysings gebruik word.

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***The generations to come will be right to curse us, if it is within our power to accelerate the course of history with intelligence and we fail to do so.***

***A fundamental right cannot be postponed indefinitely.***
***It is only a question of time, as every true idea must become fact regardless of the resistance it meets.***

***There are regions of the world which produce food to supply others, while hunger does not disappear in them.***
***The farm worker from a developed country produces twenty times as much as his fellow worker from one of the backward nations of the earth.***
***Does he work more?***
***No; he works less.***
***Is the land he works more fertile?***
***No; generally, it is less so.***
***The ultimate reason for this phenomenon can always be found in the existence of a low level of productivity.***
***It is a problem of the competence of the people involved in the effort.***
***The first need for underdeveloped countries is for efficiency.***
***Development is impossible, if men are not given the training they need.***
***Productivity is a synonym for capability.***

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Tydskrif vir
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# Editorial

In a recent *Research Bulletin* (Volume 16 (8) 1986 of the HSRC), S.W.H. Engelbrecht and A. Muller (pp.32-33) refer to the continuing crisis in Black education and report on an important seminar in May 1986 where the five top research priorities for education were identified. They include teacher training at the top and the improvement of teachers' skills in handling the medium of instruction (specifically English) in the third place.

Yes indeed! The alarming conditions in education for Blacks call for urgent measures. These measures should demonstrate clearly and convincingly that it is possible to improve the quality of education and accelerate the tempo of training and learning to such an extent that it will give the peoples of this country new hope for the future. New possibilities should be seen for equal educational opportunities as well as for the full realization of human potential.

Surely it can be maintained, although the contrary is often nowadays suggested, that solutions to educational problems are prerequisites for a peaceful constitutional and political dispensation in South Africa.

It should be clear (and this has frequently been said) that no isolated, ad hoc or conventional efforts or approaches are able to or are going to change significantly the appalling conditions, especially regarding communicative skills.

Of course many commendable endeavours are being made to improve the quality of education for Blacks and to accelerate the tempo of learning and teacher training. Regrettably, however, it must be concluded that in spite of all these attempts, the general picture remains bleak.

Where then lies the solution to the problem? Perhaps it lies in a vigorous search for innovative approaches, utilizing the technology of the 20th century; perhaps it lies in diligently exploring and reorganizing the possibilities of these approaches and technologies; perhaps it lies in focussing deliberately on the functioning of the human brain and on the implications for education in general and didactical strategies specifically; perhaps it lies, maybe primarily, in a realization of the inherent ability of the normal human being to be intelligent, no, more — to be creatively intelligent in ways hitherto unrealized by most people (including academics); maybe it lies in the full utilization, through full co-operative ventures, of these widely unknown potentials of every human being.

If this were our approach or philosophy, would we not find solutions to the educational problems in this country and maybe even in countries beyond the boundaries of South Africa?

All the contributions in this issue support the philosophy suggested above. PER LINGUAM is privileged to draw attention to such significant developments as are highlighted in the following pages. Moreover, it is encouraging to notice, in spite of negative and even termite-like activities in some quarters, how many of the ideas regarding innovative language teaching that have been presented to readers by this journal and its predecessor, INTUS NEWS, are already being applied with enthusiasm (and positive results) in our country.

The articles by James Hand and Beatriz Capdevielle are published with the kind permission of Professor D.H. Schuster, Editor of the SALT-Journal.

D.H. van der Vyver

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# The brain and accelerative learning

James D. Hand

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The relationship between various types of brain functions and learning has interested educators for the past 15-20 years. Memory appears to be a phenomenon widely spread among cortical regions. Both short-term and long-term memory storage are discussed. Attention is being paid to left and right hemispheric functions as well as to MacLean's concept of the triune brain. Educators have sought, in recent years, to apply brain research findings in schooling. Suggestions are offered both to students and teachers, based upon the research and theories discussed here.

Opvoedkundiges hou hulle die afgelope 15-20 jaar reeds besig met die verhouding tussen leer en die verskillende soorte breinfunksies. Geheue skyn 'n fenomeen te wees wat wyd versprei is in die kortikale areas. Kort- sowel as langtermyngeheue en die retensie daarvan word bespreek. Opvattings oor die linker en die regter hemisfere kry aandag, sowel as MacLean se konsep van die brein as drie-ledig. Opvoedkundiges poog veral in die laaste jare om die resultate van breinnavorsing toe te pas op die onderrigsituasie. Voorstelle wat gebaseer is op sodanige navorsing word hier gedoen aan studente sowel as onderwysers.

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## Perception, pattern recognition and the hypothesis of formative causation

The story of the brain and learning and, specifically, accelerative learning is tied inextricably to perception and pattern recognition.

Pribram (1979), Hart (1983), Hydén (1977) and others have indicated that the human brain functions on the basis of pattern recognition, both in terms of gross input recognition through the senses and in terms of internal neural transmission. We identify patterns in the environment and our nerve cells either pass on or block that message to other neurons based on a recognition factor which leads to secretion of excitory or inhibitory chemicals. Through this process, apparently, we learn and remember.

### Pattern recognition

The classroom, very often, is a structured environment in which the teacher tries to help the students learn to identify and understand these patterns. In Microbiology, for instance, there is a pattern to the information which microbiologists have at their disposal which helps them remember the information in their field. To students new to the field, the information is like a maze or a scatterplot of thousands of seemingly unrelated facts and data. The same is true for those first learning a foreign language, reading skills, or any new and different subject. If the students succeed, most often it is because they recognize the pattern that ties all the information together.

### Perception

Perception is an ACTIVE process of selection and matching of patterns from external stimuli and from within our highly organized brains, not just a passive reception of the external stimuli. Since learning is based upon perception, it must also be an active process, as described by Hydén. Recognizing what the pattern is *not* is equally as important as recognizing what the pattern is.

As an example of the complexity of perception we can look at the optic system. The optic nerve originates in the posterior portion of the retina of the eye. The nerve consists of about one million fibres, each originating in one tiny part of the retina. Some fibres relay information about edges, shapes, surfaces and textures, while others transmit colour information. Each of these fibres of the nerve connect to a specific site on the lateral geniculate nucleus, a plate-like structure about mid-way back in the neocortex. This means that the retina is mapped onto the lateral geniculate nucleus via the optic nerve. From there, nerves relay the visual information to appropriate sites in the visual cortex, located at the back of the neocortex in the occipital lobe of the brain.

No matter which of the five senses are considered, the brain transmits the information internally to various brain regions by an electrochemical process. A thorough description of this process is provided by Stevens (1979). Pribram (1979) speculated rather accurately that the information is coded by frequency and amplitude of the electrical portion of the message. It is known that highly complex messages can be encoded through waveform interactions which result in what is known as an interference pattern. This is the process by which holographs are produced and by which Hugo Zuccarelli recently produced "holophonic sound". Holophonics purportedly transmit more directly to brain sites than normal sound recordings, by including a referent tone (see *Brain/Mind Bulletin*, May 30, 1983).

While individual cells and small groups of cells resonate to their own frequencies and amplitudes, each major portion of the neocortex is generally internally synchronized. Consequently, a person may have an active beta rhythm (13-30+ cycles per second) generated over melodic interpretation centres when listening to an orchestral arrangement while the more relaxed alpha rhythm (8-12 c.p.s.) is generated within the verbal centres which are not currently in use. It is entirely possible that the effects of the passive concert phase of accelerative learning promotes faster learning by relaxing major portions of the brain so that those which are active encounter little interference from the other portions.

### Sheldrake's hypothesis of formative causation

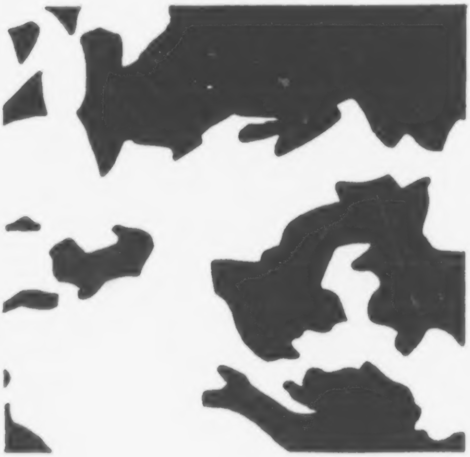
Sheldrake (1981) hypothesizes that information can be passed indirectly between members of a species, even between generations, by a phenomenon termed morphic resonance through morphogenic fields. *Morpho* means form, and *genic* refers to generated. Therefore, morpho-genic means generated form. Sheldrake posits that these fields are neither energy nor mass in nature, but have some as yet undetermined structure and wholeness.

Part of the hypothesis suggests that if a group of individuals in a species learns something, it will be easier for others of the same species to learn it. Sheldrake asked persons interested in researching this to submit proposals to the British journal *New Scientist* in a 1983 competition. The Tiger Trust (Netherlands) added a European prize of 5 000 Guilders, and the Tarrytown Group of New York offered $10 000 for the best proof or disproof of formative causation. Two experiments were chosen for 1983, one with foreign language poems and one with visual images.

In the first study, a leading Japanese poet provided three poems with similar metre and rhyme, one meaningless, one newly composed and meaningful, and one traditional rhyme learned by generations of Japanese children (see *Brain/Mind Bulletin*, May 30, 1983). Persons in several other countries, including the United States and Canada were asked to memorize the three poems without knowing which rhyme was which, and report which poems were easiest and most difficult to memorize. Considerably more than half (about 60%) of the participants found the traditional poem easier to learn. About 30% rated the nonsense poem easiest, while only about 10% found the new, meaningful poem easiest to learn *(Brain/Mind Bulletin*, September 12, 1983).

The second study (reported in *New Scientist*, vol. 100) used two pictures abstracted in such a way as to "hide" the image. Sheldrake hypothesized that there would be "a tendency for a hidden image to become easier to see if many other people had already seen it". The two pictures were sent to several cohorts in Europe, Africa, and North and South America. Each cohort showed both pictures to a group and gathered base-line data regarding how many people could identify each image during a one-minute viewing. The next week one of the pictures was selected at random and shown to two million viewers of a British television programme. The identity of the picture selected was withheld from Sheldrake and the other researchers. The picture was shown in original form then the hidden image was revealed to the viewers, and finally the image was returned to its original form. Once seen, the hidden image is quite obvious to the viewer. After the British showing, the experimenters tested another group at each site. The televised picture served as the experimental condition and the other picture as the control. The proportion of persons able to identify the test picture around the world after the British had experienced the hidden image increased 76%. The proportion of those identifying the control picture increased only 9%.

FIG. 1



Evidence continues to build in support of Sheldrake's hypothesis. If he is correct, it may have an unusual implication for educators. We may find that, when students are learning something new, it makes sense to focus on the more capable learners first; for if they master the new idea it may be easier for the less capable to master it later.

**A microscopic look at the brain**

The normal human brain weighs about three pounds. Within this marvellous structure we have approximately *100 billion nerve cells*. Each of these neurons receives inputs from 100 to 1 000 other neurons across 1 000 to 10 000 relay points called synapses. This means that there are, at a conservative estimate, some *100 trillion connections* between neurons in the brain. This complex interconnection of message-bearing relays makes the human brain by far the most intricate "machinery" known at this time. Humans are born with virtually all the brain nerve cells we will ever have. We begin producing them in large numbers at about 25 days gestation. Neurons are generated at the astonishing rate of 250 000-280 000 per minute as the foetus develops over the next eight months (Cowan 1979).

To communicate with the rest of the body, the 100 billion neurons of the brain are connected with 10 billion neurons in the brainstem and spinal cord, and a "mere" one million neurons stretching across the remainder of the body (Hubel 1979). All these are immature nerve cells in that, at birth, they are almost naked and have made few connections with the other neurons with which they will ultimately communicate. There is some evidence that learning occurs *in utero;* consequently we can confidently state that many neuronal synapses have formed. These are, however, proportionately few of the 100 trillion which will be formed later in life.

At maturity, brain cells are coated with a myelin sheath, a coating of insulation around the axon (or output end). The input centres (dendrites and the cell body) remain naked. The coating process takes from about 37 weeks gestation (7 ½ months *in utero*) until age 20 to complete. This is an important process. Brain cells are packed tightly together, separated by a thin film of fluid. Signals coming into the cell through the dendrites or cell body must be passed along the axon to the next cells in the network. While the axons are partially naked, the message travels primarily along the axon itself. When insulated, or myelinated, small gaps remain in the sheath, spaced approximately one millimeter apart. The message passing along the axon travels by jumping from gap to gap where the extra-cellular fluid makes direct contact with the axon. Insulated nerve cells, then, conduct impulses faster than unmyelinated ones (Stevens 1979).

At the junction, or synapse between neurons, chemical release is triggered by the electrical charge travelling down the axon of the first cell. If the chemical passes on the message, or excites the next cell, it is called an excitory chemical. If it blocks the message, it is termed inhibitory. Since there may be multiple or no connections with a nearby cell, there are four possibilities resulting:

- all connections excite the next cell;
- all connections inhibit the message to the next cell;
- some excite and some inhibit, reducing the strength of message passed to the next cell;
- the two cells have no direct connection.

These gradations of message networking increase the complexity of the 100 trillion synaptic connections by at least threefold. With at least 100-1 000 neurons passing and inhibiting messages to the receiving neuron, it is easy to see how intricate the process is which will determine not only whether the receiving cell will pass the message onward, but if it does, just how strong that message will be to the next neuron. As the learner interacts with the environment (teacher, peers, texts, etc.) proteins present in nerve cell membranes apparently enable the activation of very large numbers of neurons simultaneously. The more sensory channels used to input the information, the greater the number of storage sites activated (Hydén 1977). When learning starts, there is an increased synthesis of messenger RNA in nerve cells, which induces production of certain proteins and molecular pattern changes in brain cells. As Hydén points out:

> The working hypothesis is that protein differentiation, caused by experience and learning, will secure the concomitant activation of all the neurons which have undergone a similar differentiation and on the same stimulus. It does not matter in what part of the brain the neurons are located ... at learning, neurons become highly active. The learning mechanism of the brain in the first hand is *active*, not *reactive* as in a conditioned system. (Hydén 1977:215).

When a person learns his/her native language and no other, there is an identifiable section of the brain in which it is housed. When a second language is learned after puberty, it must be stored in another place. This appears to be because the neuronal connections in the first site are already taken up by the native language. Neurobiologically, B.F. Skinner was accurate when he pointed out that it is more difficult to unlearn something (reworking the established neuronal connections) than to learn it. If we take a child whose brain has many undedicated synaptic possibilities, and teach the child two or more languages during the formative years, we find that all those languages can be found in the same general area. While this is an indication of the plasticity of the youthful brain, it is not an indictment of the mature brain. There is ample evidence that adults can learn, and that the mature brain can disconnect and reconnect neurons to accomplish this, although it takes longer than the initial connection. The most striking evidence of this comes from research with stroke victims who are relearning how to walk, talk, write and perform other functions by miming patterns from normal brains shown on oscilloscopes.

**Short-term memory and its pitfalls**

For the purposes of this discussion, short-term memory refers to storage of information lasting from one-quarter of a second to one hour without rehearsal. With rehearsal, short-term memory can be maintained almost indefinitely, but usually does not last beyond eight hours due to lack of practice. When a person actively thinks or contemplates events (i.e., is consciously aware), even if this incorporates long-term storage, the short-term memory is being employed.

Unless short-term memories are committed to long-term storage, they are quickly lost. The short-term proteins triggered by the hippocampus are broken down and flushed from the system so that the short-term memory is cleared to receive new input. Because of this, there are several pitfalls involved with short-term storage: masking, capacity limitation, short duration, item and order information loss, and recency effects (O'Keefe and Nadel 1978). Masking occurs when facts, concepts or principles being learned are similar in some respect. The first learned item is generally stronger, having been rehearsed. The teacher must take care to separate these concepts in the learner's mind.

Duration involves the times indicated at the beginning of this section. Short-term memory is just that: short-term. If the instructor expects the learner to maintain the information long-term, the structure for long-term storage must be instituted (see Long-Term Memory).

Recency refers to the effect which can be stated as "that which was rehearsed more recently will be stronger than that rehearsed less recently". This is due to a lower synaptic threshold (easier transmission) for the most recently practised information.

This effect is most easily seen in students who cram for relatively short, non-comprehensive examinations. What they have just rehearsed blocks what they crammed an hour ago. Capacity limitation is severe with short-term memory, generally limited to seven discrete items. The pitfall here is that students can juggle enough information in short-term memory to pass most weekly or biweekly tests on individual chapters, units or modules; and this can be done without committing the information to long-term memory.

Item and order information frequently are lost rapidly from short term memory. An example of item loss is forgetting an appointment before it is written down or forgetting the name of the third planet from the Sun. An example of order loss is confusing the sequence of recent American presidents (Nixon, Carter, Ford, Reagan).

### Long-term memory: taxon and locale

Information processed into long-term storage is encoded in multiple areas of the brain, because experiences have multiple sensory aspects (Gazzaniga and LeDoux 1978). Much of the human brain has been mapped for functions controlled and type of information processed at given sites. Pribram (1979) and others have found a positive correlation between areas activated during both intake and recall, in terms of latency (delay of neuronal activity) and amplitude (voltage of the encephalogram). Those areas stimulated during intake match those activated during recall. And the more types of stimuli, the more sites used to store the information.

One framework for reviewing long-term memory systems is that proposed by O'Keefe and Nadel (1978), involving the taxon (rote) and locale (contextual) systems. The taxon system is categorical, lacks a spatio-temporal context, and decays greatly over time if the information goes unrehearsed.

The locale system, on the other hand, is based on context. It employs time and space coordinates, multiple channels for storage and retrieval of any or all of the relationships involved in the specific memory. Items stored in the locale long-term system are relatively permanent. Single occurrences, if they are greatly important or unusual to the person, are also stored here because they are contextual. The time-space coordinates attached to these memories allow for minimal interference between different representations of the same item. Memories which rely primarily on verbal communication will be nearly context-free and will be consigned to the taxon memory system, subject to considerable decay if not used often. By adding pictures, sounds, aromas and so on, a context is built around the verbal, causing the memory to be placed within the locale system.

When something learned is practised many times, in exactly the same way each time, the axonal and dendritic connections enlarge. This allows for more chemical transmission to be emitted into the synapse, which in turns makes it easier for the message to be passed on. When a learned item is practised many times in many different ways, the neurons make new connections with different cells, branching the message to several sites of the brain and networking the information. The first instance occurs most often with the taxon system, and the latter with the locale. When information is not practised or recalled for a considerable period of time, and the synapse is not activated, the connection atrophies, making recall more difficult. This we term "forgetting".

### Left-right hemispheric brain functions

Research on left and right hemispheric differences began in the last century with the work of Broca, who discovered the speech centre, and Wernicke, who discovered the area which interprets speech. Among the myriad of scientists investigating the capacities and dominance of each hemisphere, Kimura (1973) seems to have made one of the more important discoveries: that, in the normally functioning brain, both hemispheres *share* in mental activities. Scientists have yet to discover any one higher intellectual function controlled entirely by one hemisphere. Some scientists still refer to "the dominant hemisphere", meaning the side of the brain primarily responsible for language processing. This seems to be changing rapidly, however.

In a recent interview, Levy (1985), a prodigy of the Nobel laureate Roger Sperry, stated:

> One of the ideas I had when I was still working with Roger Sperry was that the right hemisphere of the human brain attends to and represents the holistic, configurational aspects of its experiences and that the left hemisphere is more analytic. The

> right hemisphere synthesizes things into a global form, whereas the left seems to pay attention to specific and detailed features. This is now a popular notion, *but I think it may be wrong*. Reality, in that instance, may have been playing a game with us. (emphasis added by James D. Hand)

Levy states that she now believes that both hemispheres hold the capability to synthesize information separately within the specific domain of each:

> It seems possible that when a task is within the specialized domain of a hemisphere, then information is synthesized into some higher order configuration, and that feature-by-feature processing is compelled for the unspecialized hemisphere that lacks the capacity for deriving the emergent synthesis. The way each hemisphere deals with incoming information—how it encodes it—depends on what sort of information it is and what the hemisphere can do with it.

When Levy speaks of the "specialized domain" of a hemisphere, she is referring to major capabilities it has that are only minor capacities of the opposite hemisphere. From the popular listing of these domains we should now delete analysis of detail and sequence information from the list of left brain specialities, and synthesis and holism from the list of right brain specialities.

| *Left Hemisphere* | *Right Hemisphere* |
|---|---|
| – verbal, linguistic | – intonation, inflection |
| – ideation (abstractions) | – pictorial and pattern sense |
| – conceptual similarities | – visual similarities |
| – sense of time | – location in space |
| – controls right side of body | – controls left side of body |
| – numerics, quantities | – melodic perception |
| – logic | – poetic processing |
| – outlook | – insight |
| – geometric configurations | |

This listing holds for over 90% of the tested right-handed males from Western cultures. There is considerable variation when investigations involve females, left-handed persons, youngsters and those from non-Western cultures.

**The triune brain**

The concept of triune (three-part) brain is one of the more exciting developments in recent brain research. MacLean (1973; Holden 1979) refers to three separate and distinct functional portions of the brain: the reticular formation (sometimes called the reptilian complex or R-complex) including the midbrain, pons, medulla oblongata and reticular activating system; the limbic system, which includes the amygdala, hippocampus, hypothalamus and pituitary bodies; and the neocortex or outer mantle of the brain. Each of these three portions, according to research by McLean, has its own special abilities, mentality, view of the world, sense of time and space, memories and its own motor functions. The three portions are interconnected by neuronal pathways, yet are neurochemically, and functionally distinct from one another. The behaviour displayed by a person may be determined by any one of these regions at any given time.

The R-complex plays an important role in aggressive behaviour, ritualistic behaviour, territoriality and the establishment of social hierarchies. Basic needs and sexual drive are also programmed into this portion of the brain.

The limbic system controls strong and vivid emotions, attitudes, prejudices, and motivations not necessarily tied to basic biological needs. The hypothalamus and hippocampus control the formation of long-term and short-term memory. The hippocampus also controls certain emotional states. The pituitary controls the endocrine system. Imbalance in endocrine production alters moods, which provides an important clue to the relationship between learning/memory, attitudes and mental states. MacLean (1973) states that malfunctions of the limbic organs can lead to rage, fear, or sentimentality that have no readily apparent external cause.

The relatively massive neocortex surrounds the limbic system, which in turn sits atop the reticular formation (R-complex). This region controls human intellectual functions such as logic, the quest for knowledge, anticipation of the future, anxiety, language processing and other indicators of intellect. Fully 70% of the 100 billion neurons in the brain are located in the neocortex.

The lower two regions of the Triune Brain control pulse, heart rate, blood pressure, respiratory rate and body temperature through the hypothalamus (the ultimate controller) and the reticular activating system within the R-complex. These same regions control the following:

- submission/aggression
- sexual courtship and display
- follow-my-leader rituals
- hunting/gathering
- bonding/protecting/caring
- flocking
- mass migration
- ganging up on the weak and the new
- defending territory
- ritualistic greeting
- playing
- rejoicing/sorrowing

These regions are unable to directly verbalize meaning beyond emotive expressions. If one considers this list while recalling the behaviours of students, teachers, administrators and staff in our schools, one can see how many of the daily activities of people come from the two lower regions of the brain. All these behaviours, so pervasive in daily life, interfere and often conflict with the intellectual activities of the neocortex.

The story becomes even more intricate when one considers the following. Sensory inputs from seeing, hearing, touch and taste go through the thalamus, which apparently translates the message and sends it on to appropriate sections of the neocortex. Each primary receiving area of the neocortex (totalling about one-fourth of this region) connects to associative areas, which integrate sensory inputs from two or more primary areas. These, in turn, eventually connect with the hippocampus or amygdala, or both. The hippocampus and amygdala are the primary influences on the hypothalamus from the cerebrum. The hypothalamus controls the involuntary muscles surrounding the intestines, airways, arteries and veins, urinary tract, and the glands. It also, as stated previously, controls blood pressure, heart rate and respiratory rate. As we look at the loop leading from the initial stimulation of the limbic system from sensory inputs, to the neocortical areas and back to the limbic system, consider this:

- Amygdala controls rage and fear

- Hippocampus gauges expectation and reality; stimulates and controls short-term memory; and inhibits the reticular activating system, thereby influencing tension/relaxation

- Hypothalamus controls the fight/flight response and aspects of both short-term and long-term memory.

Intellectual activity is obviously hampered by rage, fear, disparities between expectations and reality, tension and feelings triggered by fight-or-flight situations. To overcome these negative influences, as promoted by SALT techniques, the following would seem to be in order:

- pleasant surroundings

- recall of best performance

- relaxation/peacefulness

- emphasis on positives

- recall for times when learning was easy and enjoyable.

**Beta endorphins and enkephalins**

The endorphins and enkephalins are the brain's natural opiates. They are generated when we feel good about something or someone, or when we are extremely relaxed, as found in isolation tank experiments (see *Brain/Mind Bulletin* 9(4), January 23, 1984). As shown by the previous discussion, emotions and learning are tied inextricably within the limbic system. When endorphins and enkephalins are produced, the person feels good—a natural "high". This process, relaxing the limbic system's negative potential, allows intellectual pursuit to progress more readily than when negative feelings prevail. To be positive, perhaps we should guide our students toward comfort management rather than stress management.

**Handedness**

Because of the relatively few left-handed people in America, they have often been intentionally excluded from hemispheric lateralization studies because it has long been recognized that left-handed people are different. A few researchers, such as Geschwind, have focused attention specifically on the left-handed and ambidextrous, to determine how their brains are organized. Kocel (1977) found that 65% of left-handed people tested displayed the left hemisphere as the dominant verbal hemisphere. This leaves 35% for whom verbal abilities are right hemispheric predominant or shared relatively equally between the two halves of the brain.

Geschwind, intrigued by the apparent link between left-handedness, certain immune diseases and learning disabilities, surveyed nearly 3 000 people in Scotland, and found that the rates of learning disabilities and immunological diseases were, indeed, higher for left-handed people than for the right-handed (Garmon 1985). Geschwind and Galaburda (1985) believe that foetal exposure to high levels of the male hormone testosterone also accounts for the following:

- Left-handedness is found more often among males than females
- Developmental disorders related to reading and speech are more common in males
- Females are better at verbal talents while males test out better at spatial skills (thought to be right hemispheric dominant)
- Certain immunological diseases are more common among males.

The theory regarding the connection between testoterone levels, disease and learning disabilities is most controversial, as indicated in the editorial immediately preceding the first part of the series by Geschwind and Galaburda (Joynt 1985). As Joynt states:

> It is a bold look at a new area of neurobiology. It is provocative. Members of the editorial board who reviewed this were not in total agreement but they were excited about the insights and implications for research.

Whether or not the theory is considered controversial, the Geschwind-Galaburda work is eminently thorough and detailed, citing over 650 sources of brain lateralization studies.

Witelson (1985) found that, in men and women, left-handed and ambidextrous people have a corpus callosum eleven percent larger than right-handed persons. It is not yet known whether this is because of a larger number of neuron fibres, thicker fibres, or more sparsely distributed nerve cells. It is known that the brain of an eight month old foetus has two to three times the number of brain neurons than does an adult (McAuliffe 1985). Nerve cells die off and nerve axons are eliminated as the developing brain "fine-tunes" its connections. This continues through early childhood as learning compounds rapidly. One scientist, Blakemore of Oxford University, estimates "that as many as ninety percent of the connections you see in the adult brain are nonfunctional" (McAuliffe 1985), an interesting thought in light of the often stated guess that mankind uses less than ten percent of his brain capacity. Witelson believes that fewer nerve fibres are eliminated in left-handers' brains, accounting for the larger corpus callosum. This would account for the lesser hemispheric specialization for language and spatial tasks in the left-handed and, possibly, the increased frequency of certain learning disabilities in this group.

**Male-female differences and similarities**

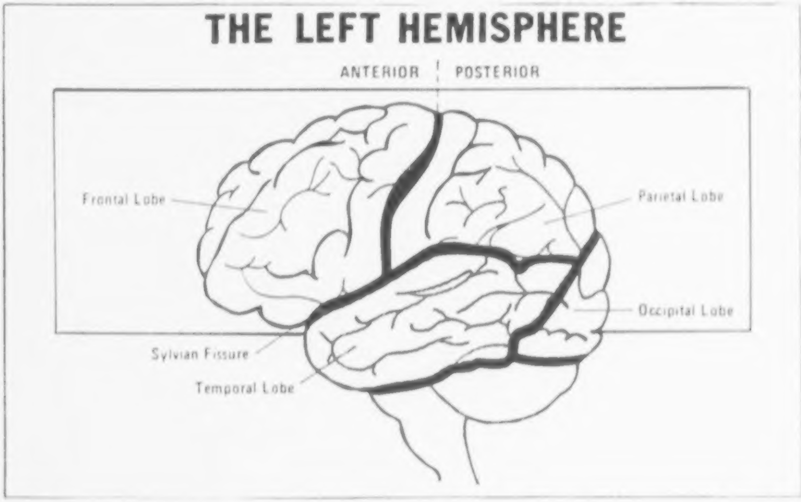
A number of researchers (mostly female) have undertaken the task of identifying anatomical and functional differences between brains of males and females (Kimura 1985; McGlone 1978; Levy 1985). They have found that "women's brains are more diffusely organized than men's" and one major study found that the corpus callosum is slightly larger in women (Kimura 1985). With this in mind, it is somewhat puzzling that right-handedness is more predominant in women (a sign of hemispheric specialization); and that right hemispheric damage results in no more speech disorders than in men, as one would expect if women depend on both hemispheres for speech.

As Kimura put it, "It took me ten years to gather enough data on brain-damaged patients to make meaningful comparisons. But an important and surprising sex difference emerged." (Kimura 1985:54). While left hemisphere damage could cause speech disorders in both men and women, "different sites within that hemisphere were involved in the two sexes". The disorder could occur with either anterior (frontal) or posterior damage in men. For women it is much less likely to occur from restricted posterior damage:

> No woman has lost her capacity for speech because of damage to the left parietal lobe, but several men have. This seemed to suggest that the brain area involved in women's speech is, if anything, more localized than in men, at least in the left hemisphere. (Kimura 1985:54)

It seems, then, that speech-related abilities are found in a more compact area of the female left hemisphere, and there are no sex-related differences in speech disorders detectable at this point from right hemisphere damage. In women, "speech favors anterior systems and avoids the parietal region", unlike men (Kimura 1985:56).

FIGURE 2



There are other differences, as well. For hand movements involved in motor skills, men tend to use both the anterior and posterior regions of the left hemisphere; women use mostly the front (anterior) portion. For defining vocabulary words, women use both hemispheres, front and back, while men use the left hemisphere, front and back. And for other verbal skills, such as naming words beginning with a certain letter or describing appropriate social behaviour, both men and women use the front of the left hemisphere predominantly.

> Jerre Levy ... suggested some time ago that the two halves of the body, including the brain hemispheres, might grow at different rates in boys and girls, even before birth. The left hemisphere may develop more quickly in girls, and the right hemisphere in boys, thus favoring verbal skills in girls and spatial skills in boys.
>
> ...Marian Diamond [found] that the right cortex is thicker in males at most ages, while the left cortex is thicker in females at some ages... (Kimura 1985:57)

At various stages in a person's life, then, structures are undergoing more- or less-rapid growth, and patterns of brain hemispheric functions will vary from time to time as a result. Spatial ability in women has been found to vary with natural levels of sex hormones on a monthly cycle. It seems to be best when oestrogen levels are lowest. When female sex hormones are at their highest levels, women perform best on motor skills tests. Despite these findings, Kimura reminds us:

> ...we can predict very little about an individual's mental capabilities based on his or her sex.
>
> ...biological sex itself has turned out to be much more variable and dynamic than we ever imagined. And brain organization patterns are even more variable from person to person, and probably even within the same person at different times. Further, on most tests of cognitive ability there is enormous overlap of men and women. We strain to look for differences and, of course, tend to emphasize the few we find. (Kimura 1985:58)

**Mind modules**

Michael Gazzaniga, of Cornell University Medical Center, has developed a new view of brain organization. Many researchers have gone on the assumption that thought processes proceed in serial order, with a unified, linear conscious experience. Gazzaniga argues, however:

> that the human brain has a modular organization; it is organized, that is, into relatively independent functioning units that work in parallel ways. Furthermore, these modules frequently operate apart from our conscious verbal selves.
>
> The realization that the mind has a modular organization suggests that some of our behavior should be accepted as capricous and that a particular act might have no organs in our conscious thought process. (Gazzaniga 1985a:30)

This concept follows closely from the work of MacLean on his theory of the triune brain.

Gazzaniga theorizes that the normal human brain has hundreds of modular processing systems; each capable of learning, actions, moods and responses; and that all but one work in nonverbal ways "such that their method of expression is solely through overt behavior or more covert emotional reactions" (Gazzaniga 1985a:32). These activities occur without verbal expression and "with abandon". Our verbal self must interpret and explain the actions, moods, and responses of the nonverbal mind modules. If there is no ready explanation, cognitive dissonance arises. Because people "cannot live in a state of conflict between a belief and something they have done, something has to give; what gives is usually the belief". The primary and associated verbal areas of the brain interpret our behaviours and emotional states, both for ourselves and those with whom we have contact, because of the brain's need to maintain a high degree of consistency in our behaviour. Through this we are capable of assessing the nature of our "self". The more disparate the actions of the nonverbal modules, the more the verbal self must explain or rationalize those actions, the closer grows the verbal self to the nonverbal in their views of the world and belief systems. It seems a fascinating puzzle, unravelling very slowly, that each human may have multiple personalities with multiple needs, goals and desires. At the very least, the views of MacLean and Gazzaniga should strike a note of truth in those of us who have acted "on impulse", done something even we could not readily explain later, and have had to modify our self perceptions as a result.

**Suggestions for educators**

The following suggestions are based upon what we know about the brain and how it functions. Some of the suggestions are common educational practices which can now be defended from an understanding of recent brain research. Some are espoused by those interested in accelerative teaching and learning. Other suggestions are new.

A great many students, perhaps the majority, mistakenly equate reading with studying. When reading silently, a relatively small portion of the neocortex is usually involved. By encouraging students to include other activities in their study, additional brain centres are activated.

- Read the words aloud — activates Broca's area, Wernicke's area, left hemisphere sensory and motor cortex, and the angular gyrus (primary auditory area).

- Read with emotion and inflection — activates right hemisphere areas for prosodic functions, right motor and sensory cortex, and limbic system.

- Develop a pictorial image of the meaning of the words and sketch a visual summary — involves a major portion of the primary visual cortex, left and right motor and sensory cortices, central and peripheral nervous system from the brain stem through the arms, hands and fingers.

- Summarize in your own words and write down key words to recall lengthy descriptions — allows some storage of words in the right hemisphere to tie in with the pictorial memory.

- Colour-code the sketches — discrimination within the right visual cortex.

- Tie all of the above to laboratory or other experiential activities — activates left and right motor and sensory cortices, brain stem, central and peripheral nervous systems.

- For review of previously learned material, use relaxation techniques, remembrance of joyful and easy learning, and the playing of Baroque largo passages — lowers beta rhythms (13-30+ cycles per second) within the left hemisphere, allows increasing alpha rhythms (8-12 c.p.s.) in both hemispheres, impacts the limbic system components controlling emotion and memory, and works to lower blood pressure, heart rate, and respiratory rate.

- Test yourself after studying, emphasizing use of the key words and sketches in attempting to recall the details studied — reinforces neuronal connections established during initial learning, leading to hypertrophy and/or branching of neuron dendrites and making recall easier.

For the educator there are also several suggestions for planning instructional activities (Hand 1982; Hand 1984).

- Be careful not to detract from the clarity of the presentation, use as many types of sensory and theoretical inputs as possible. Multiple channels of input stimulate multiple brain sites and distribute neuronal connections across those sites. This improves recall capabilities because any of a number of stimuli can trigger the recall process.

- Teach and test to the same memory system. If you emphasize the rote taxon system in your instruction on a particular topic, use rote memory testing also. Do not assume that the information has also entered the contextual locale memory system. If you want the student to be able to apply what was rote memorized, provide appropriate practice to provide a context for its use. This employs the locale system, and then it is also appropriate to test from the locale memory.

- When the information or process being learned has direct applicability to some future learning or use (such as a job task), the learning should take place within a context as similar as possible to the context in which it will be used, in order to enhance later recall.

- When teaching for storage in locale memory, stress visual representations. Picture memory of humans is remarkably efficient.

- At the conclusion of the learning session, have the students relax for a few moments while they rehearse what they have just seen and heard. Memory practice and verbal associations between what was said and what was seen increase the students' ability to recall and uncover previously unremembered details. The "old saw" that a student should take a break and do something entirely different at the end of a study session was discovered to be a detriment to learning (Haber 1970).

- The more vivid and active the impression of what is being learned, the stronger the memory trace. The spike of electrical activity in the brain increases markedly with novel, surprising or vivid stimuli. This activity signals the hippocampus and hypothalamus to produce increased levels of neurochemicals related to memory formation.

- Ask the student to verbalize during perceptual experiences. When information of a perceptual nature, regardless of the sensory systems employed, is encoded while the information simultaneously is being verbalized, the internal language system is active, and the information is encoded verbally and nonverbally. A bond forms which allows the language system some access to memories laid down by the nonverbal systems.

- For individualized self-study materials, the setting in which they are used is at least equally important to learning as are the quality of content and the design used to present the information. Directions for use of the materials should include suggestions for appropriate settings in which study may be most effective. If the material can be used by pairs of students or by small groups for interactive study, directions should include suggestions for the most effective use of the materials in group discussion.

- Clarity reduces unwarranted anxiety. Explicit directions, unambiguous learning objectives, sample test items, practice and review items, clearly drawn diagrams with appropriate labels, worksheets, and well-outlined and clearly stated textual materials tend to let the student know exactly what is expected by the instructor. This frees the limbic system and neocortex from unwarranted anxiety about the requirements of the lesson or course.

- Examples used in instruction can affect the learner's attitude and mood. Effectiveness of examples is determined, internally, by the learner. Examples which are clearly pertinent to the subject, or to the life-goals of the student, provide a realistic backdrop for the information being learned. In many cases, the examples can draw upon aesthetic appeal, empathetic situations, or common positive personal experiences of the learners, all of which can have a positive influence on the student's limbic system. Developing a positive attitude toward learning, or at least avoiding alienation of the student, is important to hippocampal involvement in generating the proteins essential to long-term memory.

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***THE REVOLUTION of intelligence will happen without fail in all countries of the world.***
***It will begin in the arms of all mothers.***
***The day mothers realize that they, and not nature, are the well-springs of their children's intelligence, that day and for that reason alone, the world will be changed forever.***
***The revolution of intelligence is not an act.***
***Not even a succession of acts.***
***It is a continuous, permanent course, an unending and dynamic series.***
***In truth, it started the day the first man appeared on the earth.***
***And it will only end with History.***

PER LINGUAM VOL. 2 NO. 2 1986

# The microcomputer: A tool for personal language learning

## David H. Wyatt

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Computer-assisted methods of teaching and learning languages have been surrounded by controversy and debate for over a decade. In 1979, however, microcomputers began to appear in a form suitable for educational applications, offering for the first time an alternative to both the cost and the approach of large computer systems. The impact of the microcomputer has been limited by a number of factors, and microcomputer-assisted learning is still in a relative state of infancy. The main implications for language teaching and learning are only now beginning to be understood, just as the limiting factors are starting to disappear. This paper will assess the present situation and outline some likely future developments in the use of microcomputers in language learning.

Rekenaargesteunde metodes by die onderrig en aanleer van tale is reeds meer as 'n dekade lank omgewe deur meningsverskil. In 1979 egter het mikrorekenaars hulle verskyning begin maak in 'n toepaslike vorm vir opvoedkundige doeleindes. Vir die eerste keer was daar 'n alternatief vir die koste verbonde aan en die benaderingswyse van groot rekenaarstelsels. Die trefkrag van die mikrorekenaar is deur 'n aantal faktore gekortwiek en rekenaargesteunde onderrig is steeds in sy kinderskoene. Die belangrikste implikasies vir die aanleer en onderrig van tale begin nou eers deurdring soos die beperkende faktore begin verdwyn. Hierdie artikel takseer die huidige situasie en omlyn moontlike toekomstige ontwikkelings vir die gebruik van mikrorekenaars by taalaanleer.

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### 1 Introduction

Computers have been used in education for over 20 years (Hart 1981). For much of that period, computer systems remained so expensive that they had virtually no impact on the educational mainstream. Only in the last four years have computers begun to enter a broad range of institutions in the shape of relatively inexpensive microcomputers.

The arrival of the microcomputer has been a very rapid process. As early as 1982, American elementary and secondary schools already had an average of approximately four microcomputers per school (U.S. Department of Education 1982). In simple numerical terms, they already outweigh many older educational media. In my own Education Department at Trinity College, a recent request for an overhead projector led to the discovery that the department owned one such projector, as compared to 22 microcomputers.

Over a relatively short period, computers have thus become available to a broad range of teachers who had little or no previous experience or preconceptions concerning computer-assisted learning. Even the first generation of microcomputers, including the Apple II and the Atari 800, had capabilities which few previous large computers possessed (Holmes and Kidd 1981). These novel features, such as colour graphics and sound generation, pointed towards entirely new applications. On the other hand, these first microcomputers had limitations in memory capacity which made it difficult or impossible to implement some well-established techniques (particularly in the areas of score recording and automatic routing) from large computer systems.

These factors have all contributed to a period of unparalleled experimentation with the educational applications of computers. Much of the software so far developed for microcomputers is similar to earlier work on large systems. However, there is an increasing emphasis on areas that received little attention in the heyday of mini- and mainframe computers. In language learning, as in other areas, the central question appears to be this: what is the *proper* role of the computer? This paper will present a scheme for categorizing the various roles and then propose an answer to the question.

## 2 Case histories

To lay the groundwork for an analysis of computer involvement in language learning, we will examine three concrete "case histories". Although these are presented in general terms, they are based on actual examples of language learning software.

We will visit the media centre of a large American college. The college has a number of students from overseas who are learning English as a second language. We step into the first classroom in the centre...

CASE 1: Amina is sitting at the keyboard of a basic microcomputer system. On the screen is a description of a scene in which she, as a student, is introduced to the head of the department. In the scene, it is Amina who must speak first. At the bottom of the screen, she is given a choice of four greetings and asked to select the one she would use. Amina types the letter c to indicate her choice of a highly formal greeting. The computer responds with a word of congratulation and a brief note on this level of formality.

The screen is erased and a new scene is described in which Amina is being introduced to one student by another. From the new choices at the bottom of the screen, Amina again selects a highly formal greeting. This time the computer explains why this is inappropriate and asks her to try again. On her second attempt, she chooses an appropriate greeting.

After working with sixteen scenes, Amina is choosing greetings at the right level of formality virtually every time. She has answered nine out of the last ten questions appropriately–the degree of accuracy that the computer has been waiting for. Instead of presenting the 17th scene, the computer tells Amina that she seems to have no problem with greetings and offers her the choice of skipping to the next topic.

CASE 2: The second classroom in the media centre is also equipped with basic microcomputer systems. A group of four students is staring intently at the screen. Johann, the student operating the keyboard, quickly explains that they are in the middle of an adventure in which their task, as detectives, is to locate some important documents that have been stolen.

Johann turns back to the screen, which contains a description of the back room of a house. The main features of the back room appear to be doors to the left and right, some stairs leading up and a closet under the stairs. At the foot of the screen is a list of choices such as "go through the door on the right", "climb the stairs", and "open the door of the closet under the stairs". After some heated discussion among the group, Johann is told to select c to open the closet door. The screen clears, a new title "In the Closet" appears, and then a description of the closet is provided. It ends with the message that someone is coming down the stairs overhead, and lists the new choices of action, one of which is to close the closet door. Johann reads the quickest and selects that option just in time to conceal himself from the intruder...

CASE 3: Entering the third classroom, we find audio and video equipment in addition to basic microcomputer systems. Rosa, Pierre, and Ahmed, advanced level ESL students, are using a system with a colour monitor and videodisc player controlled by a microcomputer. They are sitting back in their chairs, apparently just watching a movie which we eventually recognize as *Raiders of the Lost Ark*. Several minutes pass while they continue to watch. Suddenly Rosa leans over and taps a key on the microcomputer. The movie stops, then disappears, and a "help" menu appears on the screen.

Rosa explains that she did not understand the dialogue at the end of the last scene. She presses *4* and the last four seconds of the movie are repeated on the screen before the "help" menu reappears. Still uncertain, Rosa selects "script" from the menu and the script for this segment of the film is shown on the screen. A word in the script is entirely new to her, so she selects "vocabulary help" and an explanation of the word is displayed on the screen. Finally satisfied, she selects "continue" from the menu and the film begins again.

### 3 Computer roles in language learning

This paper will attempt to clarify the debate over computer roles in language learning by establishing three broad categories. Based on the relationship of computer and student, computer-assisted learning activities may be classified as *instructional*, *collaborative*, or *facilitative*.

### 3.1 The instructional role

The *instructional* role is the one which will generally be most familiar to those who have worked with older, large computer-based language learning materials. It is also the best-documented in terms of proven effectiveness (Ragosta et al 1982). The first case history illustrates some of the features often associated with this role. Instructional courseware typically has a clear set of learning objectives, generally obvious to both students and their teachers, and a very carefully planned instructional sequence based on the mastery of intermediate objectives as stepping stones to the final aims. In much of the instructional courseware, the computer either takes the role of teacher (tutorial programmes) or drill master (drill-and-practice programmes). Students take a very active role, but they act as responders rather than initiators, trying to supply the response that the computer is expecting. Sophisticated instructional programmes, as in the first case history, are designed to branch so as to adapt appropriately to students' achievements or difficulties. Hence they are generally intended for students working individually at separate computers.

### 3.2 The collaborative role

The second case history illustrates some aspects of *collaborative* courseware. In this role, the computer is no longer the "teacher" or "leader". Instead, it may typically create an environment in which learning can occur. Students assume much more responsibility for initiating activities and learning from them. Typical examples of collaborative courseware are adventures, simulations, and modelling programmes.

The instructional objectives of collaborative courseware are often expressed in much more general, high-level terms. For example, one of the main objectives in the second case history is to encourage and develop rapid, accurate reading skills. A second objective is to develop understanding of expressions for spatial relationships. In terms of instructional design, the students' progress through the materials will no longer be measured in discrete steps with appropriate branching. Rather, the linguistic planning involves the careful selection of lexical, structural and functional features appropriate to the students' level — the creation of the environment in which they will operate.

Because collaborative programmes are generally holistic in nature, not depending on discrete learning steps, they permit and sometimes require use by groups of students rather than individuals. In group situations, entirely new types of learning objective may arise. In the case history, the group discussion generated during the adventure is an extremely valuable aspect of this type of courseware. However, the courseware can also be used by individuals.

### 3.3 The facilitative role

Both instructional and collaborative programmes generally incorporate deliberate teaching/learning strategies. In their purest form, however, facilitative materials are "empty" of teaching or learning strategy. For this reason, they should be of great interest to proponents of acquisition-based approaches to language learning (Krashen 1981). Instead, facilitative courseware aims at eliminating or reducing some types of "inauthentic labor" (Kemmis et al 1977) involved in language learning.

The third case history provides one example of a facilitative programme. The courseware is built around an off-the-shelf optical videodisc of a very popular film. The videodisc is not altered in any way, but is controlled by a microcomputer programme which will provide a wide range of assistance to students–but only when requested–at the touch of a key. Here, students take full responsibility for their own learning.

Some facilitative courseware, such as the videodisc-based material described above, lends itself to use by either individuals or groups of students. Another example of facilitative courseware is the use of word processing and spelling checker programmes in writing classes. Here, however, only one student at a time can use a computer system.

It should be emphasized that there may be a relationship between the sophistication of the computer system and the type of courseware that is feasible (Wyatt 1983). As mentioned previously, some important features of instructional programmes were difficult or impossible to implement with the limited memory of first-generation microcomputer systems. With such microcomputers, extensive score and performance recording can be achieved, but not easily. In a system designed by the author, for example, an entire diskette for each student is devoted to maintaining this information if the teacher decides that such an option is desirable. As a second example, intelligent answer-processing can be implemented on the older microcomputers (Pusack 1983). However, systems based on older microcomputers do not compare to the power and convenience of those based on mini- and mainframe computers.

As newer microcomputers with very large memory and storage capacities become available, this situation is now changing rapidly.

Similarly, the use of videodisc or videocassette players does not imply a facilitative approach. In fact, both instructional materials (Luckau 1983; Melendez 1980) and collaborative materials (Schneider & Bennion 1983) have also been produced. It would be quite possible to develop discrete-step, instructional listening comprehension materials based on the same videodisc mentioned in the third case history. For a thorough instructional approach to listening comprehension, however, it would probably be necessary to film carefully scripted scenes and create customized videodiscs or tapes — a much more expensive undertaking.

## 4 The proper role of the computer

In terms of the categories that have been identified, what is the proper role of the micro-computer? It seems clear that all three of the roles are potentially valid. Language learning is a field in which a very broad range of approaches is currently employed. There is no general agreement on precisely which methodology and what techniques are superior to all others. In fact, this has been the subject of fruitful debate at every professional conference I have attended and shows every sign of continuing indefinitely.

Why, then, should we attempt to prescribe some computer roles and proscribe others? Diversity in computer-based language learning materials is as healthy and vital as diversity in language textbooks and methodology. Ultimately there are two arbiters of the fate of educational materials. One is the teacher, selecting materials which best fit with personal convictions and styles of language teaching. The other is the student, responding to the materials made available and selecting those which fit personal learning habits and styles most effectively (Jones 1983).

The debate and controversy surrounding the different roles that microcomputers can play in language learning are testimony to the growing appreciation of the contribution this new technology can make. Rather than seeking to proscribe one approach or another, we should be concerned with ensuring that, whatever approach is selected, the courseware that is produced is the highest quality we can achieve.

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***No one is born civilized or primitive.***
***The child of a civilized man and woman will never be a civilized being, if he does not acquire the necessary learning.***
***The child of a primitive man and woman will become civilized, if he is educated to be so.***
***The difference between a primitive man and a civilized one is not biological; it is educational.***

PER LINGUAM VOL. 2 NO. 2 1986

# Suggestopedic research in the GDR

## Sigrid Gassner-Roberts

At the Institute of Mnemology at the University of Leipzig, a research team consisting of faculty members from the departments of Medicine, Education, Music and Psychology, as well as laboratory technicians has been investigating suggestopedic teaching for several years. English and Spanish language courses are conducted on a regular basis in connection with this research. The results of the research have been published in "Wissenschaftliche Berichte". This article describes a visit to the Institute, an observation of a Spanish lesson, and provides a summary of two articles from the "Wissenschaftliche Berichte".

By die Instituut vir Geheue-ontwikkeling aan die Universiteit van Leipzig word suggestopediese onderrig reeds verskeie jare nagevors deur 'n span saamgestel uit lede vanuit die departemente van Geneeskunde, Opvoedkunde, Musiek en Sielkunde, tesame met 'n aantal laboratoriumtegnici. Taalkursusse in Engels en Spaans word gereeld aangebied as deel van die navorsingsprogram. Die resultate wat tot dusver behaal is, is gepubliseer in "Wissenschaftliche Berichte". Met hierdie artikel word 'n besoek aan die Instituut vir Geheueleer beskryf, sowel as 'n waarneming van 'n Spaanse les. Ten slotte word 'n opsomming gegee van twee van die artikels wat in "Wissenschaftliche Berichte" verskyn het.

In October 1984 I had the privilege of visiting the University of Leipzig in the German Democratic Republic. Dr Klaus Jänicke, a neurologist and psychiatrist, is the director of the research division for mnemology. In the course of my discussions with Dr Jänicke I found out that suggestopedic language teaching and all experiments regarding mnemology are conducted in another building on the outskirts of the city. Every week all teachers and researchers, and on occasion the technicians, meet in Dr Jänicke's office to present and discuss progress reports and decide on directives regarding teaching and research. The members of this team include, in addition to the director a music therapist, a psycho-physiologist, an educationalist, several language and anatomy teachers, all of them with an extensive knowledge of psychology, and several laboratory technicians. I was shown the laboratories where EEG, ECG and all kinds of bio-feedback measurements are taken. Students who take suggestopedic courses at the University are often put under laboratory conditions for specific purposes, for example for research in physiological reactions during seances, or research into the neuro- and psycho-physiological connection between activation, intelligence, personality, and memory and achievements respectively. Student attitudes to education and research in the GDR are hardly comparable with those in the USA, therefore the establishment of laboratory situations with students poses no problem at all. In this way the students serve as "probandi" for psycho-physiological research, so that accepted criteria can be validated and the effectiveness of individual elements of Suggestopedia be measured. The results achieved are then incorporated into the next course design. This interrelationship between scientific research and practical application has proved to be successful. Some of the research results are subsequently published, for example in the "Wissenschaftliche Berichte". So far three volumes of research reports have been published, the most recent one in 1983.

In the GDR, Suggestopedia is not used either in elementary or secondary schools, but suggestopedic foreign language courses are conducted in centres for continuing education. Like the students who take suggestopedic courses at the Institute for Mnemology, these continuing education students come from the working population, are aged from 18 to 55 years and have varying educational backgrounds. These courses are supported by the various ministries. Education is firmly in the hands of the government, and so is methodology. The languages taught in the Institute are Russian, English and Spanish. Under the guidance of the Institute, a controlled experiment with five control classes and one suggestopedic class in anatomy for future physiotherapists was conducted several years ago. Since its successful completion, anatomy has been taught suggestopedically several times.

Comparing Suggestopedia in the GDR with SALT in the USA or Australia I found several differences. In the GDR neither physical nor mental relaxation exercises precede the actual lesson; nor are visualisations and imagery used. Frequently the GDR students take off their shoes and put on slippers before they enter the classroom in order to emphasize the "livingroom atmosphere". Decoding, reviewing, elaborating and playing games or skits take place in the classroom, but there is a special room for the seances. I was invited to observe the Spanish lesson and was allowed to speak to the students during their break. The classrooms at the Institute are not particularly attractive. The students sit in reclining chairs in a square around the tables. The Spanish room is bright and airy, the English room is located in the cellar of the old building. It has poor lighting and ventilation, but some wood panelling on the walls gives it a special charm. The room for the seances, which is also used for the breaks, is full of atmosphere and serenity. It still has the appearance of a pre-war library which belonged to a wealthy family, with high dark-brown leather chairs, a large tiled stove, a heavy oak table, a wool carpet, landscape paintings on the walls, high old-fashioned windows, and so on. I observed a Spanish grammar seance in this room. I noticed how the teacher spoke with an irregular and therefore unpredictable three level intonation and to my surprise increased the speed of his reading until towards the end I could not understand a word anymore. The volume of the Baroque music was below the teacher's normal voice level. The research team at the Institute found that a speed-up in the passive concert session from normal speaking speed to very fast not only enables the teacher to get more material across, but it increases retention. I detected no synchronisation of text and music, and no special attention was paid to breathing. The teacher began to increase the speed of his reading when the music changed from an adagio to an allegro, in other words, when the pulse of the music was faster than 60 beats per minute. At the end of a suggestopedic foreign language course the students are given a written and an oral test. At no time do their students present a so-called psycho-drama. I explained to the researchers the type of psycho-drama that I had used in my teaching. Their reaction was that their students were confronted with real life problems which they had to solve, not something as imaginary and unreal as my dramas. In the Spanish session which I was invited to observe on the following day I witnessed one such problem-solving skit. This skit dealt with three young people, two men and a woman, who had just arrived in a Cuban city and wanted a room in a hotel. The receptionist told them that he had only two rooms, not three. Each one of the three argued his/her point regarding his/her entitlement to a room. They used arguments one would not expect to hear in East Germany, that is one said that his father was the Minister for Culture, and he would not be pleased to hear that his son had not been treated with special consideration. However, his argument did not get him a room. This skit lasted for at least twenty minutes. Two groups of four students each played the skit simultaneously. One student–there were nine in the class–had to monitor the discussions and present the solutions at the end of the skit. The idea was that the three young people in the group became friends, the two men shared the room not as strangers anymore, since they had found out that they had all come to this city to help their comrades. Class sizes at the Institute are kept to between eight and ten students.

The students are selected from a large group of applicants – there were 300 applicants and only ten were chosen for the Spanish course which I observed. All applicants have to take two psychological tests. The examiners then look for ten applicants who have *one* criterion in common. The nature of the criterion was revealed neither to the students nor to me; in fact, the students were surprised to find out that they did have one thing in common, when I asked the question regarding selection. The selected ten obtain permission from their respective authorities at their place of work to study instead of going to work. Classes begin at 9 a.m. and end at 12.45 p.m. with a fifteen minute break. The concert sessions always take place at the end of the day and the students are encouraged to go home quietly. At bedtime they are supposed to read through the material of the day. They are advised to spend the afternoon engaged in cultural activities. The researchers agreed that that part of the programme could, of course, not be controlled. At present, a suggestopedic Spanish course at the Institute lasts for six weeks, with six classmeetings per week. The English course has been expanded to seven weeks, because, as the teacher concerned told me, the students like it so much that they wish to continue. When asked for what purpose they were studying the foreign language, they all said, "aus beruflichen Gründen", for job reasons. When asked what sort of work they did at their jobs, there were as many answers as students. During the mid-morning break the students chat in the target language, with the teacher taking part in the conversation, over a cup of coffee for the "Cubans" and a cup of tea for the "English", the latter being taught British English. Obviously the two groups have their breaks at different times. Overall I found quite a lot of grammar on the blackboards, but no grammar posters on the walls. The students are given grammar sheets with paradigms and practice sentences. In the Spanish class the teacher and students spent about twenty minutes reading and explaining grammar points in the form of paradigms prior to the grammar seance. The teacher read the respective grammar rather dramatically without music, while the students followed his reading and made the occasional note or underlined something. When all was clearly understood, the students moved into the seance room for the passive concert. All students found suggestopedic teaching most enjoyable and effective. At first I was amazed to realize that none of them knew anything about the method and the theories behind it. But then it became clear to me that they were kept in ignorance on purpose to eliminate the expectancy of better learning which in itself can influence motivation and would thereby be detrimental to the validity of some psychophysiological research data. Whether or not the students who learn suggestopedically at other educational centres in East Germany are informed regarding the method I do not know. The students at the Institute were not familiar with the name Georgi Lozanov, the originator of the method. I told them about my work with Suggestopedia in Australia, and again I noticed their surprise at hearing that we, too, teach this way.

In the course of my discussions with faculty members at the Institute I found out that this Institute had its last contact with Dr Lozanov in 1982. Since then they have developed their own suggestopedic system, and have adapted it to their needs and in accordance with their own research results. Since 1982 the East German researchers have been in close contact with their Hungarian counterparts. The East Germans produce their own language textbooks. I examined a number of them and noticed that they update them quite frequently, again according to their needs and research. Already in elementary courses they use additional reading material. The chapters in the main textbooks clearly show a notional functional approach. I got the impression that the students there are expected to develop practical creativity, survival skills, and not so much expansion of their personalities, an aspect we stress so much in Western Suggestopedia.

In 1973, at the educational centre of the collective Robotron in Leipzig, the first suggestopedic courses were conducted in Russian. Since 1977 English courses have been conducted as well. By 1978 more than 500 adults aged between 18 and 55 had taken suggestopedic courses. Up to 12 people are admitted to a course, each course lasting for six weeks. Courses have been developed for three levels. For both languages taught, the teachers developed introductory courses to prepare the students for level one. In those introductory courses the students learn approximately 1000 lexical items. In this way the teachers make sure that the students of level one start at the same level. As far as course content is concerned, the preparation course and level one of the language course deal exclusively with everyday topics, that is notional functional topics, and with the geographical and cultural situation of the Soviet Union and England respectively, as well as with normative grammar. Grammar is not stressed at all, although some grammatical structures are taught as they appear in the texts. Grammar is not taught for the sake of grammar.

In level two more general themes pertaining to science and technology, basic concepts of economic politics and general topics from the area of mathematical and electro-technology are dealt with. Only very difficult aspects of grammar, particularly in Russian, are taught.

In level three special topics in the area of technology, energy and commerce are dealt with linguistically. Grammar is no longer taught, only reviewed. On all levels, but particularly on level one, much attention is paid to phonetics, as they aim at a perfect command of cultured pronunciation. The students and teachers work with two sets of texts. One set is contained in the textbook which naturally carries some redundant vocabulary, and the other set is used for the seances, where this redundancy has been skilfully eliminated. Apart from linguists, subject specialists help with the writing of such texts. The text for the seances shows the target language and the translation, a list of the new vocabulary and a list of the new verbs, the latter because verbs play an important role in any language, therefore they receive special attention in the seances. The teachers at the collective Robotron call this the nucleus of the material. In addition other material has been produced which they call variable material, consisting for instance of texts to be translated into both languages, the target language and the mother tongue, interviews as well as grammatical exercises in the traditional fashion. Level one contains predominantly dialogues and descriptive texts, levels two and three monologue texts and lessons without a text at all, but in their place they have phrases and lexical items. These phrases serve the purpose of guided conversations and often highlight special grammatical points. Not all verbs of a lesson can be found in a verb list, but only those which are used frequently and those which lend themselves to grammatical demonstrations of their various forms. The exercises preceding the grammar seance in the Spanish lesson which I saw at the Institute dealt with such verbs as well.

It seems that other educational centres in the German Democratic Republic arrange their courses in a similar way to the ones I have just described, making allowances, of course, for different subjects. The Institute conducted a controlled experiment in 1972 at the School of Medicine teaching students anatomy in six courses. Each course had an equal number of experimental and control students, except course 6, which had 48 suggestopedic students enrolled. The comparative results showed a decrease in teaching time in all five experimental courses, less time spent on homework in those suggestopedic courses where such data was collected and generally higher marks and no fail mark. The researchers also assessed the effectiveness of suggestopedic teaching versus conventional teaching of anatomy. In all suggestopedic courses and in all parts of the courses the effectiveness of the teaching was increased in varying degrees. They found that particularly the weaker students and those who showed complicated personality traits, especially the neurotic students, fared better with suggestopedic teaching than their counterparts in the conventionally taught classes. The sixth course in this project was taught by two teachers who each took 24 students. One of the teachers taught suggestopedically, the other taught in the traditional manner. This was clearly reflected in the achievements the two groups reached. While the first five pairs of classes had between 12 and 40 contact hours necessitated by the distribution of the various subjects within anatomy, course 6 was taught throughout the year in 109 hours. The fact that the results of course 6 were below the results of the other suggestopedic groups caused the researchers much heartsearching. A questionnaire filled in by the students gave some clues toward the explanation of the problem. It appeared that not enough tests were given in such a way that they would influence the students' attitude to learning in a positive and motivating way. Furthermore, course 6 went on for far too long, and the students who were at the same time exposed to conventional teaching in other subjects suffered from interference from other subjects. The latter became evident from the answers in the questionnaire. The researchers drew several conclusions from these experiments:

- Suggestopedic teaching can achieve the same learning results in a shorter time. It can even increase the results significantly.

- Inconsistent results may appear through unavoidable external interference. Such disturbing factors must therefore be eliminated.

- There is no subject area within anatomy which is in principle not suitable for suggestopedic teaching.

- Suggestopedic teaching can generally be integrated into a total course of studies. It can improve the student's attitude to learning, his/her ability and independence.

- All elements of suggestopedic teaching must be observed in order to achieve maximum results.

It seems that the researchers in the GDR to date have not taught other subjects by suggestopedic methods. The researchers mentioned in their discussions with me those courses in foreign languages and those in anatomy that I have discussed in this paper. Specific research is continuing under the auspices of the University and various Government Ministries. Such cooperation between academic institutions and the government, whereby the latter is willing to bear the financial burden, must bring interesting results. In the GDR, Suggestopedia is organised and in firm and competent hands, unlike the situation in the West, where so many people do their own thing and make unsubstantiated claims and thereby do more harm than good to a potentially wonderful method.

In my view every country should establish a research set-up similar to the one at the Institute of Mnemology at the University of Leipzig. We could then validate claims and compare results on a much larger scale, we could refine the method and its adaptations for each country and thereby learn from and about each other and we could develop it further. Suggestopedia could then become universal and would no longer be dominated by any country East or West of the Iron Curtain.

***When one accepts the right of every human person to be intelligent, the focus of one's existence changes more radically than may be obvious at first glance.***
***This proposition has a bearing on the family, the State, the international community, and even the concepts of man and history.***
***It represents an ideological revolution.***
***In changing man by making him more intelligent, we transform all of society.***

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# Error analysis and its significance for second language teaching and learning

P. Sobahle

This article focuses on the errors made by a group of Xhosa speakers over a period of time in the process of learning English. Only by making an analysis of these errors can the teacher come to an understanding of why they keep recurring. By gaining insight into the reasons for the persistence of certain errors within that specific group, effective remedial action can be taken. Error analysis should therefore be an important ingredient in teacher training programmes for all language teachers.

Hierdie artikel fokus op die mees algemene foute wat deur 'n groep Xhosa-sprekers begaan is oor 'n sekere tydsverloop by die aanleer van Engels. Slegs deur 'n foute-analise te maak kan die onderwyser die redes bepaal vir steeds voorkomende foute binne daardie bepaalde groep. Daarvolgens kan dan remediërend opgetree word. Foute-analise behoort gevolglik 'n belangrike onderdeel van opleidingsprogramme vir alle taalonderwysers te vorm.

### Introduction

There are several schools of thought concerning error analysis. One maintains that:

- Errors are a by-product of the process of learning a language. If we were to achieve a perfect method of teaching, these errors would not occur.

Another school maintains that:

- We live in an imperfect world and consequently errors will occur in spite of all our efforts (Corder 1981:5).

The latter point of view is gaining support. Errors not only occur when one is learning a new language, native speakers of a particular target language do not always produce well formed utterances, in which case we speak of lapses rather than errors.

### What is error analysis?

Error analysis is the study of errors made by a group of people who share the same mother tongue when studying a second or third language. It consists of all the errors made that are peculiar to that group of people. This, however, does not mean that people with different mother tongues do not share the same type of errors.

The errors referred to in this paper are those observed over a period of time made by standard 10 pupils, all Xhosa speakers, and by some first year university students, some of whom are not Xhosa speakers, but at least speak one of the African languages.

### Differences between an error and a mistake

If a language learner unconsciously breaks the rules of the target language as a result of faulty learning, he makes an error. In the second language situation, these are often habitual and systematic. When a learner breaks the rules of the language as a result of non-linguistic factors, he makes a mistake. Ill-formed utterances produced by native speakers are not the result of an imperfect knowledge of the language. A native speaker is in a position to correct the mistake made, whereas a non-native speaker may not be in the same position. This again will depend on the stage at which the learner is. If he is in the pre-systematic stage, the learner is not in a position to see the mistake because he is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the target language. If his errors are regular and he is able to give a coherent account of the rule he is following, he is operating a rule of some sort, but a wrong one. He is thus in the systematic stage. If he produces correct forms but inconsistently, he has learnt the rules but fails through lack of attention or lapse of memory to apply them consistently. This is called the post-systematic stage.

Learners will be at different stages in respect of any particular system of the language; for example, they may be post-systematic in the number system, systematically erroneous in the use of articles and pre-systematic in the use of the perfective aspect (Allen & Corder 1974:131). Similarity in the rules of the learners' language with those of the target language could be one of the causes of this.

**Significance of errors**

To the teacher, errors are significant because they tell him how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and what remains for him to learn. They also tell the teacher where to lay stress when revising.

The teacher should not only be able to describe the errors linguistically but should also understand the psychological reasons for their occurrence. He should therefore be able to diagnose and cure them.

The study of errors should lead to a better understanding of the processes by which languages are learned and should thus in turn lead to the development of improved methods, materials, syllabi and so on. At a more mundane level, error analysis is seen as an activity akin to diagnostic testing, a means of ascertaining the content of a learner's control of various features of a language.

To the learner, this is a device which he uses in order to learn. Human learning involves making mistakes (Brown 1980:164).

**Attitude of the teacher towards errors**

A "red" book returned to the learner by the teacher can be discouraging. Whilst the teacher is involved in the process of error analysis, this does not mean that he should correct all the mistakes made by learners. After all, these (mistakes) tell us little about the problems that the learners have. The teacher should also avoid focusing too much attention on the learners' mistakes to the total neglect of correct expression either oral or written. Errors should, however, be dealt with immediately.

**Error analysis**

The first step is to categorise the errors. There are three categories in which errors can occur (Corder 1981:36). These are:

- Graphical or Phonological
- Lexical
- Syntactical

If we take this sentence for instance:

* "I have come to enter this assignment" we first of all try to reconstruct it and find out what exactly was intended. We might agree that the person wanted to hand in his assignment. The error is neither graphical nor phonological.

Compare, for example with:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *"I* | *have come* | *to see* | *you".* |
| Subject | predicate | infinitive | object |
| **"I* | *have come* | *to enter* | *this assignment".* |

There is thus no grammatical error. We therefore deduce that the error is lexical. The learner does not know the correct lexical item. Again according to Pit Corder, the second step is to classify errors at the following levels:

- Arrangement
- Selection
- Omission
- Over-inclusion

Using again the sentence already quoted as an example, there is nothing wrong with the arrangement of the sentence (Arrangement). There is no word left out (Omission), there is no unnecessary word included (Redundancy). The problem is in the choice of the word (Selection). The error is therefore at the level of selection.

The third step is to establish what process is operating in the learner to produce such an error. Selinker states that there are five control processes in the study of the second language (Richards 1974:37-41). These are:

- language transfer
- transfer of training
- strategies of second language learning
- strategies of second language communication
- overgeneralisation of the target language linguistic material.

This third step involves contrastive analysis. Going back to our sentence, we find that the process involved is that of language transfer. In Xhosa there is one verb root for "enter" and that is "ngena".

e.g. – "Nkqo nkqo" "*Ngena*"
"knock knock" "Come in".

– "*Ngenisa* lo tafile"
"Bring in that table".

– "*Ngenisa* umsebenzi wakho"
"Hand in your assignment". (Submit)

There may also be a second process involved — strategies of second language learning. The learner might know that there are words like "hand in", "submit" and "bring in" but might not be sure of their usage. He thus avoids the use of the unfamiliar words.

Words like "make" and "do" also fall into this category.

e.g. "Uzokwenza inwele"

It is very common to find:

*"She has come to have her hair made" instead of
"She has come to have her hair done".

The same applies also to certain English words. There is only one English word for "phatha", "thwala", "beleka", "tyatha", "singatha", namely "carry".

– "Uze uphathe isazisi sakho".
"You should carry your identity document".

– "Ebethwele inyanda yenkuni".
"She was carrying a bundle of wood".

– "Mbeleke uyalila"
"Carry him (on your back) - he is crying".

– "Yityatathe"
"Carry it on your shoulders".

– "Msingathe"
"Carry him on the lap".

The sentences with asterisks quoted here have a lexical error in that the learner chose the wrong word. The errors are therefore on the level of selection. The verbs in the first language here have been transferred into the target language. (In reconstructing and trying to establish the process operating in the learners' mind, it would be interesting sometimes to ask the learner to explain why he had written that.)

**Areas where errors occur**

Errors like the following are common:

– *The teachers writes ...

– *She go to town.

– *We sings.

– *There is many ...

These are syntactic errors and are on the level of selection. In the first error, for instance, instead of "write" the learner chose "writes". What happened is that the learner transferred the rules of the first language to those of the target language.

In English the subject agrees with the predicate in terms of number and person:

e.g. – He buys food.
They buy food.

The Xhosa equivalents are:

– *Uthenga* ukutya
He buys food.

– *Bathenga* ukutya.
They buy food.

The possible reason for this type of error is that in Xhosa unlike in English, the verb form does not change to agree with the noun in number. What changes is only the prefix to agree with the class of noun or pronoun. "Buy" changes to "buys" whereas the same form, the root of "thenga" is retained.

Another difficulty occurs when the statement has been changed to a question, for example:

*"Does the teacher knows that you are ill?"

The error made is syntactic and is on the level of selection. The error is probably due to transfer of training. The learner knows that a noun in the singular has to take a singular form of the verb. In the above example, that is so:

"The teacher knows..."

The learner has probably disregarded "does" which introduces the question. Sentences like the following are thus common:

- *"Did he went to town yesterday?" instead of "Did he go to town yesterday?"
- *"Will he writes the test tomorrow?" instead of "Will he write the test tomorrow?"

Another type of error is found in sentences like the following:

"Ivy went to town and met his friend Nomsa".
"She will submit his work in the afternoon".

The type of error made is syntactic and is on the level of selection. The possible reason for such an error is that in Xhosa gender is not differentiated lexically. Another reason is the transfer of training. Most examples given by teachers refer to males.

Because of this "obsession" with male characters, it thus becomes easy for learners to write "he" where they should have written "she".

The English syntactic system uses the article whereas in Xhosa there is no article. For example, to write:

"Ndiya e-ofisini" is correct in Xhosa but
*"I am going to office" (which is a literal translation) is unacceptable in English.

The learners then have a problem knowing when to use or avoid definite and indefinite articles and thus produce sentences such as:

- *Satire is form of writing.
- *Among animals, pigs had to play leading role. (*Animal Farm*)
- *There was misunderstanding between animals. (*Animal Farm*) (Vukela 1983:28)

Interference is also found in idioms. Learners have a tendency to translate idiomatic expressions in the native language to the target language. A good example is taken from a composition written by a standard 10 pupil:

*"There is no knee at this school". This was translated literally from:

"Akukho dolo kwesi sikolo" which in English means: "The teachers of this school are impartial, straight forward–honest".

It is also common to hear learners saying:

*"He is playing about her" when they mean:
"He is messing her about". In Xhosa the equivalent of this is:
"Udlala ngaye" which is literally translated.

There are also errors which could be attributed to poor control of the English phonological system. For instance the learner writes:

*"feedin skin" for "feeding scheme"
*"I *head* the news" instead of
"I *heard* the news".

The first step is again to try and find out what it is that the learner wanted to say. The next step is then to classify the error.

These examples are on the level of selection. Mawasha (1982:33) states that these errors tend to cluster in four areas, which are:

- vowels e.g. ship, sheep, board, bored
- consonants e.g. feeding scheme/feedinskin
- consonant clusters e.g. o'clock/otlock especially/expecially
- voiced versus unvoiced e.g. south/southern

The explanation for the cause of these errors is simple. The sound *f* in Xhosa will always be represented by the symbol *f* whereas in English there is no consistency in the sound-to-symbol relationship. This inconsistency is a cause of confusion to many learners of English.

A certain English speaker went to a black school, looking for a certain teacher. He was told that the teacher he was looking for was late. The visitor then indicated that he was willing to wait until he arrived. The headmaster had to explain that he meant that the teacher had died.

The error is semantic and is on the level of selection. The process operating in the learner's mind is probably overgeneralisation of the rule.

In English it is correct to say:

- "The girl is beautiful" and therefore:
  "The beautiful girl".
- "The man is kind" and therefore:
  "The kind man".

  But it is incorrect to say:

- *"Mr. X is late (for dead) and therefore
  "The late Mr. X" which is correct.

"Mr. X is late" only refers to Mr. X being late for something and not being dead. The problem with the learners is that they applied the rules used in the first two sentences and overgeneralised them.

Various institutions have their own argot. At the University of Fort Hare, for instance, students talk of a "tutorial", whereas at Rhodes University they talk of a "tut", pronounced It tI. This is college slang. Some learners are not aware that a particular term is unique to a particular institution and even then that although when talking to their friends they can use it, it is unacceptable in formal writing. Here are a few words that appear in students' writings:

*"I will roll her in the afternoon".

Here "roll" means "entertain". "You will seldom find her in her room now that she is out of the boat". To be "out of the boat" means to "have a lover". If you are "in the boat" it means that you do not have one and you are thus a "sailor".

*"Old Major conscientized the animals".

This comes from "conscious" – "to be aware". To "conscientize" therefore is to make one "aware politically".

**What must teachers do with these errors?**

It is doubtful whether reteaching the structures already discussed will help the learners stop making the errors. These learners have been exposed to English as a subject for ten to eleven years and English as a medium of instruction for seven to eight years. If one looks at the school syllabi one finds that the same lexical items and structures are repeated from one standard to another.

Ellis and Tomlinson (1980:177-278) suggested that the following procedure can be usefully followed:

Attention to errors:

The learners should be presented with a number of sentences some of which are correct and some of which contain examples of a type of error. They should then indicate which sentences are unacceptable and say what is wrong with them. They further suggest that only errors which the learners commonly make should be dealt with because of the danger of the pupils learning the wrong version. This view does not, however, invalidate the concept of trial and error learning even at university level.

The next step is correct exemplification. The unacceptable sentences are corrected on the board and further relevant examples of the correct usage of the item are given.

The following step is Drill. This could be done orally or in writing. Teachers should however, refrain from using meaningless drills. Asking a pupil to write a word he got wrong a hundred times will not help.

The last step is what is called Mechanical Practice. Pupils are given practice which involves some decision-making and not just the mechanical repetition of correct models. Sufficient guidance should, however, be given to enable most of the pupils to get most of the answers right.

## Conclusion

Error Analysis at all levels of language teaching is essential, even though this does not mean that all the errors will be eradicated. Any remedial action taken by the teacher must be on the basis of such error analysis. There will be those errors peculiar to that particular group of students and as long as these errors do not cause a breakdown in communication, they should be tolerated in conversation but corrected in class.

Error analysis should therefore be an important ingredient in teacher training programmes for all language teachers.

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# An overview of Project Intelligence

## Beatriz C. de Capdevielle

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With this article, an overview is given of a Venezuelan project which aims at improving the ability of students to perform a wide variety of intellectually demanding tasks. This project acknowledges that there is no substitute for thought. Conventional subject matter is only taught in so far as it is helpful to realize the ultimate goal: that of enhancing thinking skills. But perhaps the most important aspect of the project is attitudes; particularly those that are most conducive to intellectual growth and achievement.

Met hierdie artikel word 'n oorsig gegee oor 'n projek wat in Venezuela ontstaan het en wat ten doel het om studente te help om 'n wye verskeidenheid intellektueel inspannende opdragte uit te voer. Die projek gee erkenning daaraan dat denkprosesse met niks vervang kan word nie. Konvensionele lesmateriaal word ook slegs gebruik in soverre dit kan bydra tot die bereiking van die uiteindelike doelwit, naamlik om die denkvermoë te stimuleer. Maar die grootste klem val waarskynlik op instelling: dié soort instelling wat die grootste bydrae kan lewer tot intellektuele groei en selfverwesenliking.

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For the development of the intelligence of the Venezuelan population several programmes were initiated during the period 1979-1984, when Dr Luis Alberto Machado held the office of Minister of State for the Development of Human Intelligence. One of these programmes was designed by Harvard University and the consulting firm Bolt, Beranek and Newman, in conjunction with the Ministry of Education of Venezuela. The programme was named Project Intelligence. (This project has been published in English as *Odyssey: A Curriculum for Thinking*, by Mastery Education Corporation, Watertown, MA, 1985.)

The general purpose of the project is to produce materials and methods that would enhance thinking skills. In particular, the project aims at developing a course that could teach the kinds of thinking skills that would be useful in their own right, that would facilitate the acquisition of other skills, that would enhance intellectual performance in various conventional subject domains and that would be broadly applicable in a variety of different contexts.

The specific goals of the course are:

- To develop in the students a set of habits and organizational schemes that will support systematic and analytic observations;
- To introduce the students to certain basic modes of, and tools for interrelating information productively; and
- To exercise and elaborate these skills in a variety of different contexts, pointing out analogies and, thus, promoting transfer between them.

The course is composed of 99 lessons, each of which provides material and guidance for one 45-minute classroom session. The lessons are organized into 20 units of three or more lessons each, and the units, in turn, are organized into six series. Heavy emphasis is placed on student participation and the lessons are designed to engage the students actively in thinking and discussion.

Each series represents one of six major themes:

- Foundations of reasoning
- Understanding language
- Verbal reasoning
- Problem solving
- Decision making
- Inventive thinking.

The first series of lessons "Foundations of Reasoning" has been designed to introduce the students to the basic attitudes, concepts and processes, upon which the course as a whole has been structured. This series of lessons is divided into five lesson units.

The first of these units is entitled *Observation and Classification*. If we think of the lesson series as a whole as the foundation of the course, we might think of its first unit as the "cornerstone" of the course. The primary objective of the unit is one of introducing the students to the processes of gathering, organizing and interpreting information in a systematic, critical and productive way.

The first lesson of the unit, *Observation*, is directed toward increasing the students' awareness of the importance of observation. The students are led to the realization that all knowledge we have acquired or have yet to acquire must, in the final analysis, derive from some person's direct observation. It follows that our skills as careful, analytic observers are important. The lesson then turns to the concept of characteristics or the elementary aspects of objects, and the students are given several exercises designed to emphasize that astute observation and description depend on attending to the world at the level of individual characteristics.

In lessons 2 and 3, the students are engaged in observing and describing the similarities and differences between objects. Through the activities, the students are introduced to the principle that the interpretation of one's observations is often biased by both the context in which they are embedded and the purpose one has for making them. In addition, the students are exposed to exercises requiring inductive or creative thinking. The most important objective of these two lessons however, is that of familiarizing the students with the concept of dimension.

In lesson 4, the students are introduced to the fundamental epistemic operation of classification; in other words, to the grouping of objects on the basis of their similarities and differences. The students are engaged in comparing and contrasting sets of abstract designs in order to form classes of shared characteristics.

The formal definitions of classes and of the process of classification are presented in lesson 5. The students are exercised in the rudiments of identifying, creating and using classes for purposes of organizing information, thus clarifying their relationship to dimensions and characteristics.

In lesson 6, the concepts and processes introduced in the previous lessons culminate in the activities of hypothesis formulation and verification. These activities involve a critically balanced interplay between analyzing and synthesizing information.

In short, the lessons in this unit provide a very basic introduction to the concepts and processes that were considered to be fundamental to the course as a whole.

Unit 2 is entitled *Ordering*. It begins with an introduction to three different types of sequences: progressive, cyclical and alternating. The students are then led to discover the defining characteristics of orderable dimensions, as well as some of their interpretative advantages and perils.

The objective of lessons 7 and 8 is to equip the students with the basic concepts and processes that support the ability to recognize an entity across a change and, moreover, the ability to understand and project the change itself.

In lessons 9, 10 and 11, the emphasis shifts from the concept of order to the concept of orderability. In lesson 9, the students are introduced to the idea that the characteristics of some dimensions are intrinsically orderable. They are also provided with a simple test for distinguishing orderable from unorderable dimensions. Then, in lessons 10 and 11, they are exposed to some of the interpretative advantages and risks associated with orderable dimensions. The students are led to consider, for example, the advantages of being able to extrapolate and interpolate values by working with graphs, and the inherent relativity and consequent ambiguity of orderable descriptors by examining misleading advertisements.

In the third unit of this series *Hierarchical Classification*, the students are brought back to the topic of classification. However, the focus here is not on simple classification as it was in Unit 1, but on hierarchical classification. In a classification hierarchy, classes are contained within classes. In this way, the hierarchy allows more precise definition of the similarities and differences between its members. Moreover, the structure of a classification hierarchy is such that the relationship between any two of its members is available at a glance. Because of these characteristics, the classification hierarchy is ubiquitously useful for purposes of analytic description, organization and research.

The activities of lesson 12 are designed to lead the students to discover the nature and the structure of the classification hierarchy.

The objective of lesson 13 is one of reinforcing the students' understanding of the hierarchy while extending their appreciation of its utility.

In lesson 14, the students are introduced to a little bit of information theory as they are shown that the classification hierarchy can be used to maximize the efficiency of deductive thinking.

Unit 4 is on the structure and logic of *Analogical Relations*. In lesson 15, the students are presented with a definition of analogies. They are then given a series of simple analogical problems and a strategy for solving them. The purpose of this strategy is to direct the students toward explicit and organized analysis and comparisons of the dimensions and characteristics upon which analogies pivot.

The objective of lesson 16 is to introduce the students to the bi-directional relationships that necessarily underlie well-structured analogies.

The primary objective of lesson 17 is to consolidate the students' appreciation of these bi-directional relationships. The analogies in this lesson consist of groups rather than pairs of figures and in order to organize and interpret them, the strategy of discovering and using the horizontal and vertical relationships becomes critical.

In lesson 18, the students are presented with analogies in the standard format. They are asked to complete each of these analogies, not by selecting the missing figure from a given set of alternatives, but by drawing it, thus providing a strong test of the students' understanding as it requires that they generate, rather than merely "recognize", the logical constraints underlying sound analogies.

Unit 5, the last one of series 1, is entitled *Spatial Reasoning and Strategies*. The vehicle for all the lessons in this unit is an ancient Chinese puzzle, the tangram. The principal motive for this unit is to extend two of the fundamental reasoning skills, analysis or decomposition and transformation, to the spatial domain. These lessons serve to reinforce the theme that, whatever the nature of the problem, the solution can be facilitated through a well reasoned and methodical approach.

In lesson 19, the students are introduced to the tangram through a series of relatively simple exercises and are given two strategies to facilitate their efforts.

In lesson 20, the students are faced with more complex puzzles so that their new concepts and skills are both exercised and extended. They are, in addition, given two new strategies for tackling the problems.

In the last lesson of this unit, the students are asked to employ a strategy of trying to project or imagine how a puzzle might be constructed from the seven pieces of the tangram before actually trying to do so. In this lesson, the strategies and skills must be exercised, not in the physical, but in the mental or imaginal domain.

In brief, each of the five units in series 1 is designed to develop an understanding of some specific set of basic terms, concepts and processes that will be required in later lessons in the course.

The second series is entitled *Understanding Language*. It has been designed to help students develop an explicit understanding of the composite nature of word meanings and the ways in which they are interrelated through language. This series consists of fifteen lessons divided into three units.

The first of these units is named *Word Relations*. Its objective is to extend students' analytical skills to the domain of vocabulary. The very process of understanding language is one of decomposing the meanings of words and thereby discovering ways in which their components can be sensibly interrelated.

The first two lessons in the unit are on synonyms. The intention is not to teach the students about the terms *noun, verb, adjective*, and so on. Rather, the lessons are intended to demonstrate that different words have different functions in a sentence and that a word's function is an important aspect of its total meaning. As a test of synonymity, the students have to substitute one word for another in a sentence. If they can succeed without changing the meaning or impairing the structure of the sentence, they may conclude that the two words are synonyms.

At this stage, an example of a lesson may be suitable. What follows, is an extract from the *Odyssey: Understanding Language*, lesson one:

**Objectives of the lesson**

1. To present the concept and definition of synonymity
2. To anchor the students' analyses of word meanings in the previously learned concepts of dimensions and characteristics
3. To help the students reflect upon the relative similarities of word meanings
4. To show the students how they can use relative semantic similarity to infer the meanings of unfamiliar words

**Target behaviors**

1. To order words describing a single semantic dimension in terms of intensity
2. To identify synonyms from these ordered lists on the basis of their similarity
3. To assess the relative similarities of the meanings of two words by substituting them in a sentence

## Classroom Procedure

### ▲ Introduction

➔ The lesson we are about to do involves *word relations*.

Write *Word Relations* on the board.

➔ In order for us to examine how our minds organize words, let's do an experiment.

➔ I will say a word and you should write down the first other word that comes to mind.

➔ There are no right or wrong answers because you can relate the word that I say to others in many different ways.

Ask the students to close their eyes. Then announce:

➔ The word I am thinking of is *small*.

Allow a few seconds for the students to form an association. Then ask two volunteers to write their classmates' answerseon the board. The list may resemble the following:

| | |
|---|---|
| | little |
| | mouse |
| small | large |
| | young |
| | child |
| | tiny |

After each suggestion ask:

➔ How many of you thought of one of these words?

➔ Who thought of a different word? What word(s) did you think of? Do you know why you made that association?

Be sure to get both an antonymous pair (small-large) and a synonymous pair (small-little).

Pick a pair of synonyms given by the students and write the two words on the board. Point to the pair and ask:

➤ How do these two words relate to each other? *(They have similar meanings.)*

➤ Yes, they mean almost the same thing.

➤ Can anyone tell me to what more general category or dimension the word small belongs?

If the students need help in naming the dimension, write the following list on the board and ask them which of the terms they think is the dimension to which *small* belongs.

color
weight
texture
size
taste
shape
emotion
action

*(Size)*

➤ Very good. The dimension to which the word small belongs is size.

➤ We know *small* is one word in the dimension of size. Can you name more words that belong to this dimension?

Write the words on the board as the students say them. The list will resemble this:

small
tiny
big
tremendous
medium
huge
little
large
giant
middle-sized
gigantic

➤ Do you think we could put these words in order, starting with the very smallest and ending with the very largest? Let's try.

➤ Which of these words describes the very smallest? *(Tiny)*

➤ Good, then we'll put *tiny* first on the list. Which word should we put next? Which one describes the next smallest size?

Continue in this way, eliciting the ordered list from the students. Depending on the specific words that the students have suggested, there will occasionally be disagreements about which of two or more words should come next. Whenever you detect a hint of a disagreement, draw it out; then settle the debate by writing the words next to each other in the list to illustrate the closeness of their meanings.

Given the words in the example, the ordered list might look like this:

tiny
little, small
medium, middle-sized
large, big
huge, giant
tremendous, gigantic

➤ That's really good work. Then the answer to our question is yes, we can put these words from the general category of size into an order. That's because *size* is an *orderable dimension*. When a family of words can be arranged into a natural order from least of something to most of something, it means that they describe an orderable dimension.

➤ We wrote some of the words on our list right next to each other. Why did we do that? (*Because we couldn't agree on which one was bigger and which one was smaller.*)

➤ That's exactly right. The closer any two words are on our list, the closer the sizes they describe.

This is but part of the lesson on synonyms. As the subject is explored further, the students are constantly invited to participate. Emphasis is also placed on having students explore ideas and concepts and discover relationships, since they retain better what they discover than what they are told.

In lesson 2 the learners are given words that are almost synonyms, but not quite. The challenge is to single out that aspect of meaning that distinguishes one member of each pair from the other. Thus synonymity is used as a vehicle to help the students perceive the ranges and shades with which the meanings of words can differ from one another.

Whereas the lessons in Unit 1 concentrated on meaning conveyed by individual words, the lessons in Unit 2 focus on the aspects of meaning that depend on the *relationships between words*. The basic message of this unit is that the ideas in a well-written text form an organized structure and that there are definite logical principles that should be used both to construct and to interpret these structures.

The purpose of Unit 3, *Reading for Meaning*, is to help the students appreciate that although the content and structure of a text are important determinants of its meaning, the full meaning depends on other factors as well, such as the purpose of the author, the points of view he is trying to relate, and the familiarity of his topic to the reader.

The third series is entitled *Verbal Reasoning*. Effective reasoning means many things. It means, for example, being able to:

- Analyse and evaluate arguments including our own.
- Recognize contradictions and inconsistencies.
- Recognize what is implicit and/or explicit in an assertion.
- Form and test hypotheses.
- Modify one's beliefs when new evidence indicates they should be modified.

These abilities and many more are summarized by saying that the goal of reasoning is the establishment and maintenance of beliefs that are consistent, so far as possible, with reality or at least with such evidence as one has regarding reality. The use of evidence involves the constructing and evaluating of arguments. Thus, to be an effective reasoner requires that one be able to use language carefully and well. The lesson series is divided into two units. The first unit focuses on *Assertions*, and the second on *Arguments*.

The fourth series, *Problem Solving*, has been designed to teach students how to solve structural problems. A structured problem is a problem with an explicit and precise statement, one in which it is clear what the given information is and what has to be found. Moreover, the given information is always necessary and frequently sufficient to solve the problem. In brief, with structured problems you can be certain that all the information given has a specific purpose.

Although the characteristics of real-life problems are apparently very different from and even contrary to the ones in structured problems, there are three fundamental reasons for teaching structured problems. First of all, structured problems invoke a large subset of thinking skills. The second reason is that structured problems allow the learning of specific skills. And the third and most important reason is that behind every real-life problem, or in other words, behind every non-structured problem, there is always a structured problem.

The series is composed of eighteen lessons divided into five units.

The first unit *Linear Representation*, teaches a method for the resolution of problems that involve only one dimension. In lesson 1 the students are led to solve problems that require the construction of a one-dimensional figure in order to obtain a solution. In the following lessons difficulties are introduced; sometimes only in the sense that more sophisticated language is used to make the reading of the statement more intricate. At the end of the unit the students have verbally synthesized a problem situation and are able to describe it.

The second unit is entitled *Tabular Representation*. When more than one dimension is involved, the representation becomes more complicated. In this unit, the students are introduced to the idea of a table and are shown how to use it to solve problems that require representing several quantified dimensions at the same time.

Unit 3, *Representations by Simulations and Enactment*, has been designed to teach students how it is possible to easily visualize the dynamic situation referred to in a problem through simulated execution of the actions described in its statements. Once visualized, the representation of the situation is a relatively simple matter.

In the previous units the students dealt with problems whose solution could be grasped once the representation was constructed. In unit 4, *Systematic Trial and Error,* the students are presented with problems where the representation leads not to a single answer but to several possibilities, and are taught a very powerful and general approach for dealing with such situations.

Unit 5 focuses on a strategy named *Thinking out the Implications.* When the answer to a given problem cannot simply be read out of a representation or its meaning, or when there are so many trial answers that the "systematic trial and error strategy" becomes impractical, it is necessary to turn to other methods in order to find a promising way to solve the problem.

The fifth lesson series is entitled *Decision Making,* a topic that has been the object of intensive study for at least the last twenty-five years. The series consist of ten lessons divided into three units.

The first unit *Introduction to Decision Making* has been designed to help students understand that many of the choices they make, apparently without thinking, are accessible to introspection and analysis and that, often, the effort required to exercise these skills is more than compensated for by the satisfaction obtained from the results their decisions produce.

Lesson 1 focuses on what decisions are, who makes them and when.

Lesson 2 approaches the question of why it is that some decisions are difficult to make. The lesson is directed to the exploration of the factors that raise difficulty, using simple representations of decision making situations.

Lesson 3 elaborates on the difficulty associated with making choices when the outcomes are unknown or are known imprecisely.

The second unit *Gathering and Evaluating Information to Reduce Uncertainty* has three major purposes:

- The first is to reinforce the awareness that in most real-life decision-making situations, the outcome associated with any given alternative cannot be known with certainty before the alternative is actually selected; but that despite this uncertainty, the general rule of maximizing the chance of a desirable outcome can still be applied if the relative likelihood of each of the outcomes can be ordered.

- The second major purpose of the unit is to teach the students that an important strategy for reducing the difficulty of making choices among alternatives with uncertain outcomes is that of gathering more information.

- The third purpose is to provide instruction and exercise in the classification of information along three important dimensions: relevance, consistency and credibility.

The third unit is entitled *Analyzing Complex Decision Situations.* The purpose of this unit is to acquaint students with a simple preference specification algorithm that can be applied in everyday choice situations where each of the possible outcomes has both attractive and unattractive characteristics.

In lesson 9, the students are presented with an approach that accords well with common sense: choices among complex outcomes can be facilitated by decomposing each outcome into its constituent dimensions, rank-ordering preferences among outcomes on each dimension independently, combining the ranks across all dimensions for each outcome and, finally, choosing the outcome with the highest combined score.

In the last lesson of the unit, this approach is modified to include an obvious and critical aspect of the choice process: the consideration of the relative "importance" of the component dimensions to guarantee the production of desired results.

The lessons in the sixth series, *Inventive Thinking,* introduce the concept of design as a way of teaching inventive thinking. Design is considered a bridge concept that provides a way of moving from the specific, concrete and simple to the general, abstract and complex. The series introduces the students to inventive thinking by addressing the designs of specific, concrete and simple things. Later, they approach much more general, abstract and complex things, talking about them in the *same vocabulary of design. One basic assumption* behind this series of lessons is that effective inventive thinking requires students who understand and appreciate the creativity in their environment. The series consists of fifteen lessons divided into two units: *Design* and *Procedures as Designs*. As with the previous series, the first unit of the lesson series provides a foundation for the second to build upon.

The first four lessons introduce and provide practice in three strategies for understanding the designs of simple objects. The students come to recognize the inventiveness behind ordinary items, such as a pencil or a paperclip, items we rarely think about.

Besides understanding designs, another crucial prerequisite to inventive thinking is evaluating them. In lesson 5, the students learn a strategy for evaluating designs using a number of design standards. They not only identify positive and negative features of a design, but also judge their relative importance.

Building on this foundation, the last four lessons of the first unit challenge the students to improve existing designs and to invent new ones. The strategies taught for improving and inventing are almost identical. They each involve two main parts: defining the problem and solving the problem. The steps within each part are arranged so that a step in which the students think divergently and generate ideas is followed by one in which the students choose critically among the ideas.

The lessons in the second unit are about "procedures". Procedures are methods for doing something. They range from the everyday procedures involved in shopping or cooking to the complex procedures of scientific and technological enterprises. Procedures are central to these lessons on inventive thinking as well as all the other lessons in *this course because what the lessons teach are* procedures: better procedures for thinking. Accordingly, the understanding, appreciation and improvement of procedures is an especially appropriate theme for this unit.

In lessons 10 and 11, the students learn that one can analyze a procedure as a series of steps.

In lessons 12 and 13, the students learn how to evaluate a procedure through a strategy resembling the one for evaluating concrete objects.

In the last two lessons, 14 and 15, the students transfer the strategy they learned for improving the designs of concrete objects to improving procedures.

As we have just seen, the overall goal of the programme is to enhance the ability of students to perform a wide variety of intellectually demanding tasks; in other words, tasks that not only require a careful, systematic and analytic observation or gathering of information, but that also depend on the ability to interrelate or to build inferences on those observations so as to draw useful conclusions or insights from them.

All the lessons throughout the course have been designed to enable the student to become an independent and autonomous thinker, a person who is able to constantly improve not only his thinking, but also his own procedures for better thinking.

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# New Publications ... Nuwe Publikasies

## Reviews

**John Pearce**

*The Heart of English: Nine to Fourteen.* Oxford: OUP, 1985. (124pp.)

This book was written for "teachers who find themselves teaching English without claiming a specialist competence in the subject" and aims at providing practical guidance in planning, developing, and organizing classroom work. Consequently, although Pearce has British teachers in mind, many South African teachers who lack confidence will welcome this book.

It is divided into three parts. The first part considers the reading curriculum and looks at ways of developing comprehension skills. These three chapters draw on recent research findings to define firstly what reading is, firmly establishing the importance of a dynamic view of reading which takes account of reading as a process of growing sophistication. Standard comprehension exercises are sharply criticised because of their limitations if understanding is seen as important. A vivid picture of alternative activities is given. However, although Pearce makes his points most convincingly, the illustrations given are unlikely to be directly useful to the South African teacher, who will have to choose passages which speak to his own pupils.

The section on reading goes on to suggest sensible ways in which skilful reading can be taught, employing cloze, prediction, sequencing and questions. Practical advice is given so the inexperienced teacher would have no difficulty in drawing up his own exercises. Finally, the section on reading explores ways in which children become fluent readers "able to range as widely in reading as their studies or hobbies may take them and as deeply in literature as their interests may lead".

The second section of the book is concerned with developing writing skills and ways of helping children towards a clearer sense of audience, register and mode. Teachers in training will find the distinctions made between various stages in the child's development most illuminating. Established teachers may find they have been emphasising 'correctness' when the child needs to "adopt and engage with the style of written language". Chapter 5, which looks at ways of teaching writing, is particularly useful in offering suggestions which take the realities of the classroom into account. The chapters on spelling and punctuation are refreshingly bold suggesting the importance of establishing clear patterns rather than teaching long lists of spelling or studying analytic rules.

The third section deals with oral skills and the importance of integrating the various skills which constitute language study in an organized and balanced way. The present emphasis in South Africa on language across the curriculum makes this section particularly relevant. The final chapter in the book explores very briefly some related issues such as slow learners. While the discussion is necessarily rather superficial, it does provide a very useful orientation.

Pearce argues convincingly and readers will enjoy his clean style. Furthermore, his view of classroom activity is coldly realistic/refreshingly candid.

While the treatment of the teaching of English is not comprehensive, the book offers a rare combination of clear insight and practical guidance. It provides a rich store of ideas and forces the reader to re-examine established practices. Although those teaching English as a first language will gain most from the book, second language teachers will find much to interest them.

Those who find the book lacks depth of treatment will discover that the *Notes of references* direct them to works that offer more detailed examination of each of the topics discussed.

E. Ridge

**Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson**

*Relevance: Communication and Cognition.* Oxford: Blackwell, 1986. (279pp.)

Sperber and Wilson attempt to ground the study of human communication, and verbal communication in particular, on a general view of human cognition. There is an obvious similarity between their aims and that of Jackendoff, in his recent book, *Semantics and Cognition* (1983). The difference is that Jackendoff attempts to integrate a theory of *semantic* representation within a theory of conceptual structure, while Sperber and Wilson are concerned with *pragmatics*, the interaction of linguistic meaning and contextual factors in utterance interpretation.

Although their main concern is the use of language to communicate, Sperber and Wilson do not claim that the essential feature of language is its use in communication. Neither do they claim that linguistic communication–that is, communication by means of language–is a typical case of communication. The assumption of such an essential link between language and communication thus plays no role in their account of utterance interpretation.

In chapter 1 ("Communication"), Sperber and Wilson consider two major questions raised by the study of communication: (i) what is communicated? and (ii) how is communication achieved? As regards the second question, they reject the view that there can be a general theory of communication. They argue that communication cannot be reduced to either the code model of communication or the inferential model, since communication can be achieved in completely different ways. A unified theory of communication based on either of these two models is thus ruled out. The best-known inferential model–that of Grice–is critically analysed, and an attempt is made to develop an improved inferential model. This model is called the *ostensive-referential* model of communication. Ostensive-inferential communication is defined as follows (p.63):

> The communicator produces a stimulus which makes it mutually manifest to communicator and audience that the communicator intends, by means of this stimulus, to make manifest or more manifest to the audience a set of assumptions.

An assumption is manifest if it is perceptible or inferable. The ostensive-referential model is intended to be used in conjunction with the code model to explain verbal communication.

In chapter 2 ("Inference") a model of the inferential abilities involved in comprehension is outlined. Following Fodor in *The Modularity of Mind* (1983) Sperber and Wilson view the mind as a variety of specialised systems, each with its own method of representation and computation. These systems are of two broad types. First, there are the input systems, which process visual, auditory, linguistic and other perceptual information. Second, there are the central systems, which integrate information derived from the various input systems and from memory, and perform inferential tasks. Sperber and Wilson's claim is that no specialised inferential processes are required to explain verbal inference in communication. Instead, inferential communication is seen to be an instance of ordinary, spontaneous inference. As regards this spontaneous inference, they argue that, while it is non-demonstrative, deductive rules play an important role in it.

Chapter 3 ("Relevance") is the central chapter of the book. The main aim of the preceding chapters was to set up the conceptual background required for the formulation of the principle of relevance, and the next chapter illustrates how this principle can be used to explain various features of verbal communication. The notion 'relevance' Sperber and Wilson are attempting to clarify is not that expressed by the ordinary English word "relevance". Nor is it merely an explication of the notion 'relevance' which features in Grice's well-known conversational maxims. What Sperber and Wilson attempt to do, is to define 'relevance' as a "useful theoretical concept". The principle of relevance is formulated as follows (p.158):

> Every act of ostensive communication communicates the presumption of its own optimal relevance.

The presumption of optimal relevance is formulated as follows (p.158):

> (a) The set of assumptions which the communicator intends to make manifest to the addressee is relevant enough to make it worth the addressee's while to process the ostensive stimulus.
>
> (b) The ostensive stimulus is the most relevant one the communicator could have used to communicate.

In the last chapter ("Aspects of verbal communication"), Sperber and Wilson apply relevance theory to various aspects of verbal communication, including stylistics, implicatures, irony, metaphor and speech acts. In several instances they propose analyses that differ considerably from current analyses.

Throughout their book, Sperber and Wilson explicitly contrast their relevance theory of communicaton with the well-known views of Grice. The issues on which Sperber and Wilson explicitly compare their own theory with that of Grice include the following: the precise nature of a model of inferential communication (chapter 1); the distinction between the explicit and implicit content of utterances (p.182); the question of the determinacy of implicatures (p.195); the notion of violating maxims of conversation (p.200); the question of the calculability of implicatures (p.200); the analysis of irony (p.240) and the need for a theory of speech acts (p.244). This explicit contrast between their own theory and the more well-known views of Grice ensures the book's interest value for the linguist.

While Sperber and Wilson's *Relevance* contains several interesting ideas, the main shortcoming of their theory of verbal communication is undoubtedly the speculative nature of the cognitive theory in which these ideas are embedded. The fact is that they do not take over a well-justified theory of cognition and integrate it with a theory of communication. To a very large extent, they have had to set up their own cognitive theory. The inevitable result, as they admit, is that much of what they claim is highly speculative. At most, Sperber and Wilson can claim that they have drawn the outlines of what appears to be an interesting view of human cognition and of how it works in the domain of linguistic communication.

M. Sinclair

**Peter Gannon**

*Assessing Writing: Principles and Practice of Marking Written English.* London: Edward Arnold, 1985. (88pp.)

This volume is the latest in the series: *Explorations in Language Study* and complements a previous volume, *Teaching Writing* by Geoffrey Thornton (1980). Whereas the latter mainly addresses the issues of how to achieve higher standards in writing performance, this volume is concerned with the process of responding to and making judgements about pupils' written work. As such, it is a welcome addition to the series as it analyses the problems involved in this type of assessment, without pretending to supply definitive solutions.

There has always been dissatisfaction among language teachers with the quality of pupils' written work as well as with the efficacy of marking procedures. In the six chapters of this book, Gannon offers constructive criticism of current procedures and practical guidance for alternative methods. Chapter 1 poses the question: "Why do we mark writing?" and makes a brief distinction between marking, correcting and assessing. It also touches on the need to determine and record *development* in the pupil's written skills.

Chapter 2 is concerned with the nature of language and carefully distinguishes between the written and the spoken word. In discussing the concept of Standard English, Gannon notes:

> There is nothing sacrosanct about any of the conventions of standard grammar, vocabulary or orthography, and they will certainly change over the years. But these conventions do exist, and they will not change so quickly as to relieve teachers from the duty of teaching children how to use them. (p.28)

On the other hand, teachers are not urged to eradicate nonstandard usages.

> The emphasis should all the time be on extending a repertoire of language styles and usages, not on insisting on one kind of conformity or another. (p.29)

Chapter 3 explains the need for some sort of categorization of writing *functions*. A high priority is the pupils' need "to achieve a flexibility of written style that will enable them to write appropriately for a variety of purposes". Regarding assessment, Gannon acknowledges the subjective nature of judgements and therefore sees no point in trying to devise a framework of assessment which is wholly objective. He favours the use of a teacher's *informed* intuitions in the assessment process. In developing a mode of assessment, he is concerned with four principles: (i) curricular needs (ii) adult expectations in respect of children's writing (iii) the need to contextualise writing activities and (iv) a consideration of linguistic form in relation to these activities.

Chapter 4, which considers some linguistic features of writing, has little of value to offer except for the author's views on shaping a text and achieving stylistic effectiveness.

Chapter 5 contains his suggestion for a practical means of assessment. After discussing the shortcomings of impression marking, he concludes that

> . . . assessment can legitimately be seen as a continuous and continuing process of diagnosis, encouraging of strengths, remediation of error, and, in an ever widening range of writing functions, further diagnosis. (p.63)

For this reason he advocates a profiling system of recording pupils' strengths and weaknesses in relation to different writing purposes. He then demonstrates the use of this system — the Task Assessment Sheet — and in an appendix to this chapter, supplies criteria to serve as guidelines for the six categories that appear on it. Though some of these categories (vocabulary, punctuation) are all too familiar, some of the criteria indicate a fresh emphasis, for example, the category on grammatical features includes a description of various levels of sentence structure and cohesion. Detailed guidelines are also given for assessing the shaping of a text. Overall, the emphasis is as much on appropriateness as on correctness.

The book concludes with a brief consideration of implications for classroom organization, in which Gannon stresses the importance of pupils' reading habits and the use of exemplars in developing their written skills. He touches on the importance of teacher preparation, selective marking and the pupils' need for individual attention.

This book offers a range of common sense ideas which are crystallized into a practical approach to the assessment of written work. The author insists that assessment is not merely the marking of essays, but is rooted in the process of teaching. He convincingly argues that the "raising of levels of performance in writing is best brought about by extending the range of tasks set to involve as wide as possible a variety of purposes for writing". I was impressed with the conciseness and lucidity of his views and with the perspectives they provide. As long as writing is the chief skill by which school children attempt to achieve success in our education system, assessment of written work will continue to be a crucial issue. For those teachers who, over the years, have become inflexible in their approach to assessment, or for those who have yet to develop an approach, this book will be of value.

J.J. Swartz

# Publisher's announcements about new publications on language teaching and research

### Input in Second Language Acquisition

**Susan Gass and Carolyn G. Madden, Editors**

Published by Newbury House (478pp.)

*Input in Second Language Acquisition* highlights the distinction between "input" and "intake", and further investigates the developing grammars that emerge within the context of learners' interactions and the input to which they are exposed. Bringing together a selection of papers presented at the Tenth University of Michigan Conference on Applied Linguistics, the volume addresses the study of language input from sociolinguistic, educational and linguistic perspectives. An introduction by the editors establishes a context for discussing the topic of input, and is followed by twenty-six papers divided into six areas.

### Tesol Techniques and Procedures

**J. Donald Bowen, Harold Madsen, and Ann Hilferty**

Published by Newbury House (432pp.)

This basic methods book for TESOL provides teachers and teachers in training with practical information by developing basic teaching skills without prescribing a particular method. While taking the wealth of recent theory into account, the authors adopt an integrated approach to the development of teacher skills. Care has been given to back up each of the 15 chapters with notes, discussions and exercises so that not only is knowledge developed systematically, but practice exercises provide thought-provoking topics in grammar, listening, speaking, vocabulary building, writing and reading by levels. The final section is unique..covering the topics of testing and evaluation: testing students and testing tests to get the feedback required for effective teaching. The text is designed to provide the basis for making intelligent choices appropriate to individual teachers, their goals, and their students.

### Suggestive Accelerative Learning Techniques: Theory and Applications

**Donald H. Schuster and Charles E. Gritton**

From Gordon and Breach (236pp.)

This comprehensive textbook is intended to train teachers in the use of suggestive accelerative learning techniques (SALT) in their classrooms. A humanistic teaching method first developed in Europe, SALT seeks to improve academic achievement through a variety of techniques designed to instill the joy of learning and tap — through the power of suggestion–the normally unused reserves of the mind. Used successfully with students ranging from first graders to college freshmen, the SALT approach has been applied to such subjects as reading, spelling, mathematics, science, art, beginning Spanish and German.

To assist teachers in intelligently and effectively implementing SALT techniques, the authors explain the theoretical principles behind the method. Next, they convert theory into practice through a discussion of the use of suggestion, the process of learning, and relaxation techniques. They enable teachers to explore the philosophical considerations of SALT and examine their own attitudes that impact on their classroom instruction. Including sample lesson plans, they describe in detail the components of a SALT activity and offer, in detail, specific classroom applications.

# Conferences, courses and meetings
# Konferensies, kursusse en byeenkomste

1987

### Third International Conference on Thinking

Place: Honolulu, Hawaii
Date: 4-8 January
Contact: Conference on Thinking
Social Science Research Institute
2424 Maile Way
Honolulu
HI 96822

### Fourth Conference on Changes in Methods of teaching Foreign Languages

Place: Birmingham, Great Britain
Date: 5-7 January
Contact: Department of Modern Languages
Aston University
Aston Triangle
Birmingham B7 4ET
Great Britain

### Fifteenth Meeting of German Language Learning Centres, Language Teaching Institutes and Foreign Language Institutes

Place: Berlin, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 5-7 March
Contact: W. Mackiewicz
Free University
Zentraleinrichtung Sprachlabor
Habelschwerdter Allee 45
D-1000 Berlin 33
Federal Republic of Germany

### Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics

Place: Washington, DC
Date: 11-14 March
Contact: P.H. Lowenberg
School of Languages and Linguistics
Georgetown University
Washington 20057
USA

### International Conference of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

Place: Germany FR or Belgium
Date: April
Contact: P. Stevens
3 Kingsdown Chambers
Kingsdown Park
Tankerton
Whitstable CT5 2HR
United Kingdom

### Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Place: Columbus, Ohio
Date: 9-12 April
Contact: Slavic Department
The Ohio State University
232 Cunz Hall
1841 Millikin Road
Columbus OH 43210
USA

### Twenty-first International Conference of the Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL)

Place: Westende-Middelkerke, Belgium
Date: 12-14 April
Contact: IATEFL

3 Kingsdown Chambers
Kingsdown Park
Tankerton, Whitstable
Kent CT5 2DJ
United Kingdom

**Twenty-first Annual Conference of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)**

Place: Miami Beach, Florida
Date: 21-25 April
Contact: TESOL Central Office
1118 22nd Street NW
Georgetown University
Washington DC 20037
USA

**SALT Conference**

Place: Iowa State University
Date: 24-26 April
Contact: Vanda Williamson
Box 1216
Welch Station
Ames IA 50010
USA

**Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages**

Place: Seattle, WA
Date: 7-10 May
Contact: R. Verzasconi
Foreign Languages and Literatures
State University
Corvallis OR 97331-2289
USA

**Fifth Nordic Conference on Bilingualism**

Place: Copenhagen, Denmark
Date: 22-25 June
Contact: Royal Danish School of Educational Studies
Department of Danish
Emdrupvej 101
DK-2400
Copenhagen NV
Denmark

**Seventy-second World Congress of Esperanto**

Place: Warsaw, Poland
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: World Association of Esperanto
Nieuwe Binnenweg 176
NL-3015 BJ Rotterdam
The Netherlands

**Symposium of the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL)**

Place: Essex
Date: tba (Summer)
Contact: Vivian Cook
Department of Languages and Linguistics
University of Essex
Wivenhoe Park
Colchester CO4 3SQ
United Kingdom

**Fourteenth International Colloquium of the International Society of Functional Linguistics**

Place: Paris, France
Date: July
Contact: Ecole pratique des hautes études
4e section
45/47 rue des Ecoles
F-75005 Paris
France

**Conference of the African Language Association of Southern Africa (ALASA)**

Place: University of the Transkei
Date: 1-4 July
Contact: The Secretary
African Languages Association of Southern Africa
Department of African Languages
University of South Africa
P.O. Box 392
Pretoria 0001
Republic of South Africa

**South African Language Teaching Conference**

Place: Cape Town
Date: 13-15 July
Contact: Biebie de Villiers
Department of Afrikaans and Nederlands
University of Cape Town
7700 Rondebosch
Republic of South Africa

**Fourth International Congress for the Study of Child Language**

Place: Lund, Sweden
Date: 19-24 July
Contact: Bodil Martensson
Congress Secretary
Department of Linguistics
Lund University
Helgonbacken 12
S-223 62 Lund
Sweden

**International Training in Communication**

Place: Vancouver, Canada
Date: 19-22 July
Contact: Muriel Bryant
ITC
P.O. Box 4249
Anaheim CA 92803
USA

**Sixth European Symposium on Languages for Special Purposes (LSP)**

Place: Vaasa, Finland
Date: 3-7 August
Contact: Christer Lauren
Vaasa University
Department of Modern Languages
Raastuvankatu 31
SF-65100 Vaasa
Finland

**Fourteenth International Congress of Linguistics**

Place: Berlin, German Democratic Republic
Date: 10-15 August
Contact: Werner Bahner
Akademie der Wissenschaften der DDR
Otto-Nuschke-Strasse 22-23
Postfach Linguistenkongress
DDR-1086 Berlin
German Democratic Republic

**Eighth World Congress of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA)**

Place: Sydney, Australia
Date: 17-24 August
Contact: Prof. Dr J. Nivette
Vrije Universiteit
Pleinlaan 2
B-1050 Brussels
Belgium

**Twenty-second Seminar of AIMAV (International Association for Cross-Cultural Communication)**

Place: Brussels, Belgium
Date: tba (Autumn)
Contact: S. Cornil
University
Faculty of Philosophy and Letters
Blandijnberg 2
B-9000
Gent
Belgium

**Twelfth Congress of Foreign Language Experts**

Place: Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 5-7 October
Contact: G. Zimmermann
Technische Universität
Bültenweg 74-75
D-3300 Braunschweig
Federal Republic of Germany

**Eleventh Conference on Applied Linguistics**

Place: Ann Arbor, MI, USA
Date: 9-11 October
Contact: Susan Gass
English Language Institute
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor
Michigan 48109
USA

**Annual Conference of the Modern Language Association (MLA) of America**

Place: San Francisco, CA, USA
Date: 27-30 December
Contact: MLA
10 Astor Place
New York City
NY 10003
USA

**Sources of Information**

FIPLV *World News*, No. 42(8) September 1986
*HSRC Research Bulletin*, Vol. 16(7) 1986

# Guidelines for contributors

1 The focus of the journal is on issues of language teaching, learning and acquisition, especially as related to communicative needs of multi-cultural, multi-lingual Southern Africa.

Authors are invited to submit contributions (only one original copy is required) on

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- language courses for special or general purposes – cross-cultural communication
- the effect of language teaching and learning on productivity and human relations
- technology in language teaching and learning
- innovative approaches to language teaching and learning, and
- training and in-service training programmes.

2 All contributions must be directed to

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PER LINGUAM
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University of Stellenbosch
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3 Frequency of publication: once each semester.

4 Language of publication: English or Afrikaans.

5 Format of manuscripts for publication: Typewritten, double-spaced throughout, on one side of the paper, with two and a half centimetres of margin at the left. Footnotes should be avoided and essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped at the end of the article. References for an article should not be interspersed with notes. A standard format (Harvard method) for complete references is to be used.

6 Authors' full names and complete mailing addresses should appear on the first page of each article.

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***THE FIRST human necessity is education.***
***For that reason learning is fundamental to social life.***
***Man is born knowing nothing but capable of learning everything.***
***He is subject to what he learns.***
***All that he accomplishes has been learned at one particular time or another.***
***He can learn to develop an infinity of potentialities.***
***Living means we must learn to live.***
***But man is not determined by the teachings he receives.***
***In truth, nothing can be taught; only the means of learning can be provided.***

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1 Die tydskrif fokus op taalonderrig, taalaanleer en taalverwerwing, veral met betrekking tot die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van 'n veelvolkige, veeltalige Suidelike Afrika.

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***If nature itself discriminates in fundamental aspects of human activity, such as intelligence, and not merely in aspects which are absolutely accidental, such as skin color, then it is impossible to avoid discrimination by men also.***
***For men not to discriminate against men, it is necessary that nature should not first have discriminated with regard to their possibilities of development.***
***The powerful man would be so, thanks to nature's own dictate.***
***And so also, the weak man.***
***In the face of such a situation nothing could be done short of resigning oneself to it without a fight.***
***Or else a fight, and then frustration.***
***There would be "natural injustice" instead of social injustice.***
***For injustice to be combatted it has to be in men, not in nature.***
***If nature were reactionary, the battle for the progress of under-developed persons and nations would be irremissibly lost before its start.***
***But it is not.***
***It is worth the fight.***

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PER LINGUAM VOL. 3 NO. 1 1987

# English and operacy* for teachers

## D.H. van der Vyver, Editor

The close relationship between the Stellenbosch Institute for Language Teaching (INTUS) and the Interuniversity Committee for Language Teaching has brought into being several projects aimed at upgrading the quality of language communication in Southern Africa.

As well as controlled experiments with innovative approaches in language teaching, needs analyses have been conducted with a view to improving language proficiency in industry and in primary, secondary and tertiary education.

Readers of this journal are also well aware of the fact that both the Institute and the Interuniversity Committee are strongly represented on the Editorial Committee of PER LINGUAM.

It is therefore appropriate for PER LINGUAM to announce an important pilot project which is another significant milestone on the road of co-operation between the Institute and the Interuniversity Committee.

More than a year ago, this Committee, with the Director of INTUS as Chairman, made proposals for –

**Upgrading the English language skills, as well as the cognitive, teaching and administrative skills of South African Primary School Teachers (Working title: *English and Operacy for Teachers*)**.

This led to a Round-table meeting which took place on 27 March 1987 at the Old Mutual Head Office in Pinelands. This meeting was attended by members of the Interuniversity Committee, prominent educationists and senior business executives. As a result, an educational trust (the UPTTRAIL† Trust) was launched to fund the pilot project.

### Rationale

Whatever the present or future socio-political conditions may be, improved teaching and learning conditions will remain important. Poor English language skills have been recognized by the Human Sciences Research Council and other institutions as a crucial problem area in Black education and as one of the main reasons for the undesirable failure and drop-out rates amongst Black pupils.

It is well-known that

- a high number of Black teachers in the RSA do not possess a Matriculation Certificate;
- all Black children, when entering Standard 3, have as medium of instruction a language (mostly English) that is foreign to most of them;
- many Black teachers find it difficult to teach through the medium of English.

As a result of these conditions (and others, such as a far from satisfactory pupil-teacher ratio), the low standards of teaching through the medium of English are being perpetuated.

Many different attempts have been made to improve the quality of education for Blacks and to accelerate the tempo of learning and teacher training (e.g. TELIP, the Molteno Project, PEUP, ELTIC, SERLP). However, the complexity and urgency of the present situation necessitates a comprehensive and concerted effort to address the problem throughout Southern Africa.

For the last few years the Institute for Language Teaching, with the support of the Interuniversity Committee, has seriously concerned itself with investigating **innovative means and methods** to improve the quality of education as well as accelerating the tempo of learning and training. A thorough investigation of the English language needs of Black primary school teachers in KwaZulu was completed (Odendaal:1985) and a syllabus was designed which could serve as the basis for a more effective training or in-service training programme for primary school teachers throughout the country (PER LINGUAM Special Issue No. 1 1985). Moreover, projects were initiated in which computer-assisted instruction was used (Botha,J.J.:1984 and Odendaal,M.:1984) as well as Suggestopedia, the teaching and learning method developed in Bulgaria and enriched and tested internationally.

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* **Operacy**, a term coined by Edward de Bono, refers to creative (or lateral) thinking skills. According to de Bono, operacy is in these times as important as numeracy and literacy.

† **UPTTRAIL** is an acronym for **U**pgrading of **T**eaching, **T**raining and **L**earning.

It is especially with regard to Suggestopedia that encouraging results have been demonstrated under scientifically controlled conditions, internationally as well as locally. There is convincing evidence that Suggestopedia holds great possibilities for creating a favourable learning environment in which a rich and stimulating input is possible. Three examples should suffice:

A short beginners' course in German (of about 50 contact hours) was presented by the Institute for Language Teaching for South African Airways in Johannesburg from 9 – 20 December 1985. The results were evaluated by a team of six, representing the Institute **and** the airline company. It had been agreed earlier that if **75%** of the participants passed the final test with a figure of **60%**, the course would be regarded as better than any previous one presented by either SAA itself or for the company. **All the participants passed with an average figure of 78%.**

A short **(43 hours)** suggestopedic course in Afrikaans was prepared for a group of the **weakest** English-speaking first-year students at a teacher-training college. After one semester their written and oral skills, as well as their attitudes towards Afrikaans and Afrikaners, showed a statistically significant improvement over those of second year students after **three** semesters of conventional (albeit very good) instruction in Afrikaans. **All the students in the experimental group were promoted to the second year, one with distinction.**

In another controlled experiment, **a statistically highly significant average increase in the verbal IQ** of the students in the experimental group was found after 35 contact hours.

It is important to note that in these and numerous other experiments, **a significant improvement with regard to selfimage, motivation and attitudes could be observed.**

It can be confidently stated therefore that Suggestopedia and other methods aimed at creating a rich and stimulating teaching and learning environment and at **utilizing the full capacity of the human brain**, hold great promise for a significant improvement of conditions in education in general and specifically for the Black people of South Africa.

Recent investigations strongly suggest that the achievement, attitudes, etc. of school children might even show further improvement if attention could **deliberately** be focussed on **improving the cognitive skills** of teachers and learners and on **improving the teaching and administrative skills** of teachers.

If the results of the pilot project, which will be of a strong interdisciplinary nature, are up to expectations, this could have far-reaching implications for the whole educational scene in the sub-continent.

### The pilot project

The **modus operandi** of the pilot project, which is expected to start within the next 6 months, is –

- to develop, on the basis of research already done and results already achieved with innovative approaches, an integrated package of suitable materials, didactical strategies and technological aids aimed specifically at upgrading the English language skills, as well as the cognitive, teaching and administrative skills of South African primary school teachers;
- to provide short in-service training programmes for a limited number of primary school teachers, representing a statistically representative number of **Black** primary school children and involving them in the planning of teaching materials for the schools;
- to send the teachers back to their schools where their improved skills, backed up by supportive materials and activities should show effective results within a short period;
- to evaluate and document the results on an ongoing basis. (Pre- and post-tests will be used.)

The courses for the practising teachers are at this stage designed to consist of –

- an initial motivational programme, **supported by video materials**;

- a session of about 3 hours per day for the improvement of English;
- a session of about 1 hour per day for cognitive development;
- a session of about 1 hour per day for the improvement of teaching skills, and
- a session of about 1 hour per day for improvement of administrative skills/techniques.

To achieve the objectives outlined above, close co-operation has been sought with leading specialists in the field of innovative teaching. The UPTTRAIL Trust has, for example, already established in principle an agreement for co-operation with senior representatives of the Venezuelan Project Intelligence. It is encouraging indeed that the pioneer behind this imaginative undertaking in South America, the former Venezuelan Minister of State for the Development of Human Intelligence (the first such minister to be appointed in the world), Dr Luis Alberto Machado, declared his personal interest in the pilot project and his intention to assist.

### Evaluation

To evaluate scientifically the innovative approach to language teaching, a team of researchers will –

(1) determine within 12 months (after the start of the pilot project) whether there are any statistically significant improvements in:

- English language skills,
- cognitive skills,
- teaching skills,
- administrative skills,
- motivation, and
- attitudes towards English, pupils and teaching of primary school teachers in experimental schools, compared with control groups.

(2) determine within 18 months (after the start of the pilot project) whether there are any statistically significant improvements in:

- scholastic achievement,
- cognitive ability,
- self-image,
- attitudes towards schoolwork, peers, teachers and other people, and
- communicative efficiency in English of primary school children in experimental schools, compared with control groups.

### In this issue

The Editorial Committee of PER LINGUAM welcomes all the contributions in this edition. In line with the objectives of the journal (Vide p. 55), light is thrown on the problems regarding language teaching, specifically for Blacks, in this polarized country; they also indicate new possibilities and didactical approaches for addressing these problems. The authors' preparedness to assist in tackling some of the thorny issues on the South African educational scene is gratefully acknowledged.

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# Shakespeare through suggestopedia?

Marieken Swart

This article explores the feasibility of using Suggestopedia to teach literary appreciation of a Shakespeare play. It describes the criteria for a suggestopedic text and examines the viability of using a Shakespeare play as such a text. A brief description of the course, which was presented to a group of students at Denneoord College for Continued Training in Stellenbosch, is given, as well as the results of various forms of evaluation.

Die doel van hierdie artikel is om na te vors of Suggestopedia gebruik kan word om letterkundige waardering van 'n Shakespeare-drama te onderrig. Dit omskrywe die kriteria vir die Suggestopediese teks en ondersoek die moontlikheid of die Shakespeare-drama as so 'n teks gebruik kan word. 'n Beknopte omskrywing van die kursus, wat aan 'n groep studente van die Denneoord-kollege vir voortgesette opleiding te Stellenbosch aangebied is, word gegee, asook die resultate van verskeie vorms van evaluering.

## Rationale

The investigation described in this article was conducted to test whether Suggestopedia can be used to teach the understanding and literary appreciation of a Shakespeare play to first or second language ($L_1$, $L_2$) college students.

The aversion that some students have for Shakespeare is a problem that frequently has to be faced by lecturers in English. At school level the complexity of the Shakespearean text often forces the high school teacher to resort to a laborious line by line explanation/translation/analysis of the entire play. Consequently the beauty of the language, the humour, the suspense and the universality of the message, plot and characterization are lost to the pupils. It may be an exaggeration to maintain that for the average college student the study of a Shakespeare play is tantamount to the study of a foreign language. It is not an exaggeration to say that most college students fail to recognize that the study of Shakespeare is in the appreciation of English literature.

Apart from testing the viability of using Suggestopedia to study a Shakespeare play, the objectives of the experiment were to ascertain whether a Shakespeare play itself could be used effectively as a suggestopedic text and whether the use of Suggestopedia would bring about any improvement in the students' attitude towards and appreciation of the writings of Shakespeare.

## The target group

The students were ten female candidates for a Diploma in Education at Denneoord College for Continued Training in Stellenbosch. All the students were taking the third year English First Language course for which Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice* had been prescribed. With the exception of one student this was to be the group's first post-matric exposure to Shakespeare. Nine of the students were Afrikaans speaking and one was English speaking. All of them had passed the English Higher Bilingualism Examination (E) and were reasonably well-trained in the techniques of literary appreciation and critical analysis. The average age of the group was 21 years 7 months and the average I.Q. 112,6.

## Structure of the course

The class met for fifteen 90 minute sessions for a period of six weeks. The course started on 7 August 1986 and ended on 11 September 1986.

Two 90 minute sessions were held per week for the first 3 weeks and 3 sessions per week for the final 3 weeks.

### Text

Instead of a text written especially for a course in literary appreciation, an adapted version of Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice* was used. In this way one of the major problems encountered by the convert to suggestopedic teaching, namely the writing of a suitable text, was circumvented. As far as the target group was concerned, such an approach had two distinct advantages: the prescribed Shakespeare play for their third year course in English First Language was dealt with very thoroughly and, as prospective primary school teachers, the students gained first-hand experience of the principles and unique effects of Suggestopedia.

To assess how suitable a Shakespeare play is for use as a suggestopedic text, cognizance should be taken of the criteria for such a text. In the section below, criteria compiled from three sources are listed and these are followed by a brief discussion of how far the Shakespeare text met each requirement.

### Criteria for a suggestopedic text

**1** The appearance and format of the text should have a positive suggestive impact. It should be new, different and attractive (Dhority 1984:8 – 3).

Each act of the prepared text was printed on different coloured paper in a parallel column format with the text in the left column and the glossary in the right column as indicated in the example printed below. (The extent to which explanations and synonyms should be given in the text obviously depends on the proficiency of the target group.)

| | |
|---|---|
| LORENZO: Sweet soul, let's in, and there expect their coming. | |
| And yet no matter: why should we go in? | |
| My friend Stephano, *signify* I pray you | *announce* |
| Within the house, your Mistress is at hand | |
| And bring your music forth into the air. | |
| ***Exit* Stephano** | |
| How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank! | |
| Here will we sit, and let the sounds of music | |
| Creep in our ears; soft stillness, and the night | |
| Become the touches of sweet harmony: | |
| Sit, Jessica, look how the *floor of heaven* | *sky* |
| Is thick inlaid with *patens* of bright gold, | *shallow dishes –*<br>*the stars* |
| There's not the smallest orb which thou behold'st | |
| But in his motion like an angel sings, | |
| Still *quiring* to the young-eyed *cherubins* | *singing to childlike*<br>*heavenly spirits* |
| Such harmony is in immortal souls, | |
| But whilst this *muddy vesture of decay* | *mortal body made*<br>*of dust* |
| Doth grossly close it in, we cannot hear it: | |
| Come ho, and wake *Diana* with a hymn, | *goddess of chastity*<br>*associated with the*<br>*moon* |
| With sweetest touches pierce your Mistress' ear, | |
| And draw her home with music. | |

**2** The text should introduce the target group to 1 500 to 2 000 new words during the course (Dhority 1984:8 – 2).

This criterion does not apply as the experiment does not involve the acquisition of a second or a third language. However, the general language proficiency and vocabulary of the students would be increased by exposure to Shakespeare.

**3** The text should consist of approximately 9 acts comprising a coherent, dramatic story with richly developed, authentic characters, situation and plot (Dhority 1984:8 – 2).

Few critics would fault a Shakespeare play in respect to characterization and plot delineation.

The text of *The Merchant of Venice* was shortened and adapted to form 9 acts in the following way:

| | |
|---|---|
| Act 1: ActI | scenes i and ii |
| Act 2: ActII | scenes iii, v, vi, viii and Act III scene i |
| Act 3: ActII | scenes vii and ix |
| Act 4: ActIII | scene ii |
| Act 5: ActIII | scene iv, Act IV scene i line 1 to 118 |
| Act 6: ActIV | scene i line 119 to 297 |
| Act 7: ActIV | scene i line 297 to 450,<br>Act IV scene ii |
| Act 8: ActV | scene i line 1 to 119 |
| Act 9: ActV | scene i line 120 to 305 |

The text was ordered thematically so that, for example, Act 2 of the text incorporated the relationship between Shylock and Jessica, her elopement with Lorenzo, Shylock's reaction to her betrayal and the effect that this event and the loss of his fleet might have on Antonio. Act 3, or the third concert, included the casket scenes involving the Prince of Morocco and the Duke of Arragon but excluded Act II scene i, Portia's first contact with the Prince of Morocco. In the fourth concert (Act 4) Bassanio's choice in the casket scene was dealt with to finish off the casket theme started in the third concert. In this particular experiment a shortage of time forced the exclusion of certain scenes, such as Act II scene i (Portia and Morocco) and Act II scene ii (the meeting between Launcelot and Gobbo). Such changes should not be necessary under normal circumstances.

Considerable liberties were thus taken with the chronological sequence of the play. Such a thematic ordering does, however, seem justified when one considers that the play is not presented in one sitting as on the stage where the switches in scene and theme serve a dramatic function. Feedback from the students after completion of the course, indicated that no confusion was experienced during their independent pre-examination rereading of the play. On the other hand, concerts arranged according to the chronological sequence of the play would probably be equally effective.

**4** The concerts should consist of approximately 600 words each (Dhority 1984:8 – 2).

As this criterion is obviously meant for L2 or L3 texts, it was felt that the concerts on Shakespeare could be longer. In this experiment the average number of words per Act or concert was 1970. However, as the Shakespeare text calls for mastery of language consisting of complex structure and imagery, written in blank verse and requiring sophisticated intellectual and emotional responses, fewer words per concert, an average of approximately 1700 words, would be preferable.

**5** The text should be written in dialogue (Dhority 1984:8 – 3).
Obviously a play presents no problem. Any text writer would find it difficult to emulate the fluency, functionality and ingenuity of Shakespearean dialogue.

**6** Dhority suggests that the left facing page of the text should be used for sparing, often humorous explanatory glosses of words, phrases and forms which will facilitate comprehension and enhance interest (Dhority 1984:8 – 2).
Although this technique was not used in the experiment, the text lends itself to such stimuli and their effectiveness is dependent only on the originality and artistic prowess of the presenter.

**7** Blair (1982:105) supports the concept of massive input and suggests that the text should provide a rich source of language information, a *gem mine* from which *the learner is allowed to mine what he finds functional and interesting to him*. Researchers like Hart, Lozanov and Krashen *all recommend increasing the volume of real, multi-sensory input factors up to ten times what students presently receive* (Dhority 1984:9 – 1).

The concentrated, poetic quality of a Shakespeare play presents a wealth of sensory, emotive and intellectual stimuli seldom equalled in literature. It was interesting to note to what extent the elements of repetition and artistic stimulation, that are central to the suggestopedic cycle, increased the students' sensitivity to nuances.

**8** Kussler and Bodenstein (1985:12) emphasize that the text should be able to serve as a starting point for the activation of the material being presented and Dhority (1984:8 – 3) says that it should be a *creative springboard* to communication.

The richness and complexity of the text make it ideally suited to a variety of activations which promote communication, understanding and insight (see **Structure of the lessons** for some examples).

**9** According to Kussler and Bodenstein (1985:13) the text should have a literary quality *which responds to the aesthetic and ritualistic significance of the concert session*, it should be creative, imaginative and ingenious and the content should be able to create a sense of anticipation.

The text of *The Merchant of Venice* answers all the above criteria.

**10** It should be sufficiently universal to facilitate identification with the characters and their dilemmas and yet it should remain exotic enough to sustain curiosity and interest (Kussler and Bodenstein 1985:14).

Post-course feedback from the students indicated that activations like role-play and the placing of a particular character in the "hot seat" enabled the students to identify with the characters; "The characters came alive through role-play" and "The characters were more real than those in the stage production", were two of the comments received. Obviously the suggestopedic emphasis on visualization also played a major part.

The setting of the play is ideal for stimulating interest in a different culture and environment and frequent use was made of posters, pictures and slides of the geographical, architectural, historical and artistic features of Venice. (See **Psychological setting** and **Mental relaxation**).

**11** The principles of Suggestopedia must be incorporated into the text in a holistic sense: they should feature as internal elements of the text, they should constitute and determine its plot, its message and its style. This means that the positive aims which a course sets out to achieve both academically and psychologically, should be suggested by and articulated in the text verbally, albeit not explicitly (Kussler and Bodenstein 1985:13).

This is the only relevant criterion which is not met by a Shakespearean text. However, the positive aims of Suggestopedia can be incorporated by the teacher during, for example, the periods of mental relaxation, the activations, and of course, through his own attitude. In this experiment the mere fact that the students were actually reading a Shakespeare play with understanding and enjoyment did much for their self-esteem and their faith in their own unlimited potential.

Theoretically a consideration of the above criteria shows that a Shakespeare play should function effectively as a suggestopedic text. This was certainly borne out in practice during the experiment.

## A DESCRIPTION OF THE COURSE

### Physical setting

Although the room used for the course was by no means ideal, it was decorated with attractive plants, posters and relevant peripheral stimuli and fitted out with a carpet, easy chairs, a lamp and a music centre. The "Sesame Room" quickly generated a feeling of warmth and a sense of belonging.

### Psychological setting

An attempt was made to place the whole course within a meaningful context that would also contribute towards the positive aims and principles of Suggestopedia. To arouse curiosity and a sense of anticipation and to implant positive suggestions, the students were asked to become British tourists who could choose their own names and addresses (Caroline Windsor, for example, daringly chose to come from Shrewsbury in Shropshire!). The lecturer became the tour guide on their trip to Venice where the group would be lucky enough to attend a performance of *The Merchant of Venice*. To familiarize the students with the sites which feature in the play, slides were shown of prominent Venetian landmarks like St. Mark's piazza, the Basilica, the Doge's palace, the canals and the Rialto bridge.

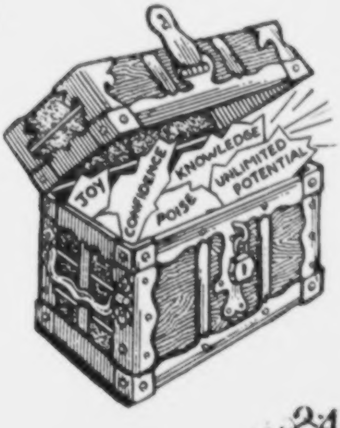
### Physical relaxation

The "exercises" in this component of the course were planned to convey a sense of relevance and contextual unity. The "tourists" were asked, for example, to help the more elderly in the tour bus to stow their luggage on the rack above their heads, to pick grapes or olives in the orchards and vineyards of Italy, and to pay for them with imaginary lira or to become gondoliers on the canals of Venice.

### Mental relaxation

The period of mental relaxation was used particularly for establishing and reinforcing the positive attitude to learning which is a cornerstone of Suggestopedia. In addition to Early Pleasant Learning recalls and visualizations, the group was asked, for example, to imagine that the course was similar to a treasure chest or casket. During the mental relaxation the imaginary casket was opened and the students were asked to visualize the brilliant and extremely valuable jewels inside that would soon become theirs. In this way, basic suggestopedic aims such as the joy of learning, the discovery of unlimited potential or the increase in self-confidence were pictured as sapphires, rubies or amethysts. A positive psychological link was also deliberately established between the aims of the course and the casket theme in the play itself. This was reinforced by the use of a colourful poster depicting a casket and its suggestopedic "jewels".

FIG. 1



To stimulate the imagination and to encourage visualization the "tourists" were sometimes taken on an imaginary gondola sight-seeing tour through Venice, or asked to picture a scene from the text taking place in a particular spot in the city to which they had already been introduced through pictures or slides. This technique was also used as a mind-calming exercise to end off a session on a quiet note. It also served as a consolidation of what had been learnt.

### The structure of the lessons

Two basic lesson structures were alternated throughout the course. This meant that every second lesson contained two concerts, that is, both an active and a passive presentation of the text.

It should be remembered that the aim of the course was to increase understanding and literary appreciation of a Shakespeare text, and not, as in most suggestopedic courses, to increase language proficiency. Thus it was felt that emphasis on the text, rather than on activations, was justified.

The following are outlines of two typical sessions:

### Type A

WEEK 5. SESSION 10. THURSDAY 4 SEPTEMBER 1986. 08h40-10h25.

**08h40–08h42** Students welcomed, rapport established.

**08h42–08h47** PHYSICAL RELAXATION: imitation of the movement of doves in St. Mark's Piazza.

**08h47–08h55** MENTAL RELAXATION: flight of a bird over Venice. (Music: Pachelbel, Canon in D.)

**08h55–09h05** ACTIVATION: ball game. Review of character traits, for example, Teacher: "Antonio" (throws ball)

Student 1: "Generous. Gratiano." (throws)
Student 2: "Garrulous. Nerissa." (throws)

**09h05–09h30** ACTIVATION: 1. Students are asked to write down a definition of the concept "mercy". A short discussion follows in which their definitions are compared to Portia's.

2 **Role-play.** Three Venetians, Salerio, Solanio and Gratiano, and their followers (the class is divided into three groups) meet under the Campanile and argue whether Portia, Antonio or the Duke shows the most mercy in the play.

**09h30–09h35** PRELUDE (DECODING): A quick review is given of the techniques used by Portia to defend Antonio during the court case. The group is encouraged to speculate on what she will do next.

**09h35–10h05** ACTIVE PRESENTATION: FIRST CONCERT. Act IV . i . 297–450, Act IV . ii . (Music: Mozart, Clarinet Concerto in A major K. 622.)

**10h05–10h08** RELAXATION: stretching and settling down for second concert.

**10h08–10h25** PASSIVE PRESENTATION: SECOND CONCERT. (Music: Vivaldi, Baroque Flute Concertos.)

### Type B

WEEK 5. SESSION II. FRIDAY 5 SEPTEMBER 1986. 12H30–14H00

**12h30–12h32** Students welcomed, rapport established.

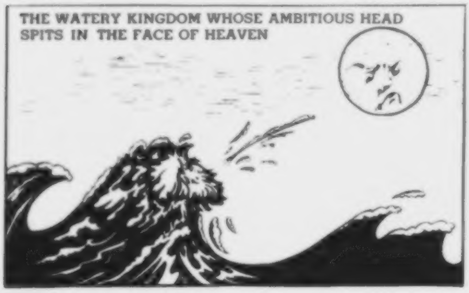
**12h32–12h34** PHYSICAL RELAXATION: digging for a treasure on a desert island.

**12h34–12h41** MENTAL RELAXATION: opening of Suggestopedia treasure chest and examining of jewels. (Music: Smetana, The Moldau.)

**12h41–12h55** ACTIVATION: quick quiz. The Italian quiz master, Valentino Froggerino (a frog puppet) "knows everything" about the play. The students are challenged to correct his erroneous statements, for example, FROGGERINO: (with a heavy Italian accent) *Jessica, she is a loyal and loving daughter.*

**12h55–13h10** ACTIVATION: creative interpretation. Each student is given a quotation from the play containing some figure of speech which she has to illustrate graphically on newsprint, for example "And foot me as you spurn a stranger cur." (The drawing below is an example of the work received.)

FIG. 2


THE WATERY KINGDOM WHOSE AMBITIOUS HEAD
SPITS IN THE FACE OF HEAVEN

**13h10–13h35** ACTIVATION: dice game. The class is divided into two groups. Each group member throws the dice and has to complete a question card supplied with the same number, for example:

FIG. 3

6

1. SUPPLY THE MISSING WORDS
2. NAME THE SPEAKER

"IF I CAN CATCH HIM ONCE
UPON THE ________ ,
I WILL FEED FAT
THE ANCIENT ________
I BEAR HIM"

(The answers were given on the back of the card.)

**13h35–13h55** ACTIVATION: analysis of motives. Shylock (lecturer or student) is placed in the "hot seat" and questioned about his actions and his motives.

**13h55–14h00** MIND CALMING: to create an awareness of Shylock's dilemma, the students, who are relaxing in their chairs, are asked to imagine the nature of the feelings experienced by Shylock and his actions after he leaves the court room. (Music: Mozart, Clarinet Concerto.)

### Means of evaluation

**1** The following pre- and post-course tests were compared.

**1.1** The new South African Group Test

These tests were administered and graded by Mr M.B. Brits of the Bureau for Student Counselling at the University of Stellenbosch on 31 July and 12 September 1986. The purpose of the tests was to ascertain whether a concentrated learning programme has any significant effect on the I.Q.'s of the target group.

**1.2** The PHSF (Personal, Home, Social and Formal) Relations Questionnaire (Human

Sciences Research Council, South African Institute for Psychological and Psychometric Research.)

These tests were administered by Mr M.B. Brits on 1 August and 12 September 1986. They were then graded by the writer in accordance with HSRC guidelines. The purpose was to test whether a course in Suggestopedia has any significant effect on the self-image and self-confidence of the group.

### 1.3 Literature tests and examination

The idea of comparing the results of literature tests written early in the year on *Pride and Prejudice* with the results of the final examination on *The Merchant of Venice* only occurred when the end-of-the-year cumulative marks for Literature were being calculated. The purpose of such a comparison was to try to determine whether any increase in understanding and appreciation of literature had taken place.

### 2 Post-course oral and written evaluations

The students were asked to make two post-course evaluations, namely:

**2.1** Their opinion of Suggestopedia as a method of instruction;

**2.2** A comparison between their pre-course and their post-course attitude to Shakespeare.

### Results

Limitations such as the size of the target group and the fact that it was not randomly selected prevent the tests from having much scientific credibility. Nevertheless, the results are interesting and are supported so positively by student feedback that it is felt that they warrant mention.

**Table 1.1 The new South African group test: A Comparison between pre- and post- tests**

| Students | NON-VERBAL I.Q. | | VERBAL I.Q. | | TOTAL I.Q. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | PRE-TEST | POST TEST | PRE-TEST | POST TEST | PRE-TEST | POST-TEST |
| 1. | 117 | 118 | 120 | 122 | 120 | 122 |
| 2. | 127 | 131 | 123 | 136 | 127 | 137 |
| 3. | 123 | 129 | 119 | 125 | 122 | 129 |
| 4. | 98 | 117 | 129 | 131 | 115 | 126 |
| 5. | 106 | 96 | 108 | 116 | 107 | 105 |
| 6. | 135 | 127 | 122 | 129 | 130 | 131 |
| 7. | 100 | 98 | 101 | 107 | 100 | 102 |
| 8. | 107 | 135 | 107 | 120 | 107 | 129 |
| 9. | 96 | 101 | 95 | 86 | 94 | 93 |
| 10. | 104 | 109 | 104 | 105 | 104 | 107 |
| Group average | 111.3000 | *116.1000 | 112.000 | *117.7000 | 112.6000 | *118.1000 |

It would seem that the positive increase in the average verbal I.Q. as given in Table 1.1(*) can probably be attributed to the course followed by the target group. Furthermore, it appears as if a concentrated language course also has a beneficial effect on the non-verbal I.Q. of the participants. The results of the Total I.Q. can lead one to the interesting conclusion that an increase in the intellectual prowess of a target group does occur after intensive training.

**Table 1.2 The PHSF relations questionnaire: A Comparison between pre- and post-tests**

| Categories | Number of students | Average for Test I | Average for Test II |
|---|---|---|---|
| Self-confidence | 10 | 31.4000 | 28.7000 |
| Self-esteem | 10 | 26.4000 | 23.8000 |
| Self-control | 10 | 27.6000 | 25.3000 |
| Nervousness | 10 | 26.5000 | 25.0000 |
| Health | 10 | 32.5000 | 32.3000 |
| Family influences | 10 | 28.8000 | 28.8000 |
| Personal freedom | 10 | 34.4000 | 35.7000 |
| Sociability: | | | |
| Group | 10 | 27.9000 | 25.8000 |
| Sex | 10 | 28.7000 | 29.1000 |
| Moral sense | 10 | 36.8000 | 35.4000 |
| Formal relations | 10 | 28.4000 | 27.3000 |
| Desirability | 10 | 16.0000 | 16.8000 |

The results given in Table 1.2 seem to contradict those in Table 1.1 as the post-course averages in test II are lower than those in test I. They also do not reflect the opinions given in reports from teachers of suggestopedia that indicate marked improvements in self-image and self-confidence in the target groups during a suggestopedic course, particularly in students who are generally reticent. This attitude was experienced to such an extent during the Shakespeare course that even the students remarked on the change that had taken place in one of their class mates. It is further borne out by post-course feedback from the students themselves as reported in 2.2.

The discrepancy between personal experience and the results of the PHSF Questionnaire would seem to indicate that the test is too general; that external influences such as final examinations may have come into play and that the test does not relate closely enough to the students' new-found confidence in their oral proficiency, understanding and insight. The fact that no positive results were shown by the PHSF test will, hopefully, not deter further psychometric research to find the appropriate method of measuring the clearly-noted improvement in self-confidence.

### 1.3 Literature tests and examination

Although a comparison between the results of tests on two different works of literature and evaluated by the lecturer concerned can carry little weight, it was still felt that an increase in understanding and literary appreciation had taken place.

Two pre-suggestopedic literature tests on *Pride and Prejudice*: Class average 54.2%
Two post-suggestopedic examinations on *The Merchant of Venice*:Class average 60.3%
(The examination paper was moderated by the University of Stellenbosch)

## 2 Post-course oral and written evaluations by the students

### 2.1 Evaluation of Suggestopedia as a method of instruction

The students were given complete freedom in their response to the course. All ten responses were extremely positive and enthusiastic. Below are typed reproductions of three responses.

2.1.1

*Something really different and really something!*
*Unexpected methods.*
*Garrulous – One really can be talkative during this period.*
*Gorgeous surroundings.*
*Enjoyment – music, chairs, relaxation.*
*Satisfaction.*
*Talk.*
*O*
*Practice in speaking English! Playing games.*
*Everything was interesting!*
*Delightful tours to Venice, the sea, the mountains . . .*
*Identity–new identity was real fun! Interesting way of representing.*
*Atmosphere – relaxed, calm and warm.*

(Caroline Windsor)

2.1.2 Sesame room:
*Relaxing; fantastic to be in!*
Music:
*Rediscovered auditory sense!!*
Flowers:
*Made it feel like being home.*
Games:
*Enjoyable; fun, laughter.*
Debates:
*Very stimulating; made you think.*
Inner atmosphere:
*Not always very calm/couldn't always put away "bad vibes"*

**Concerts:**
*Got better all the time*
**Homework:**
*Didn't always get round to the A.M.'s*
**Valentino Froggerino:**
*A star! (Better than Bill Cosby)*
**Mental relaxation:**
*The hanggliding was the best!*
**Peripheral stimuli:**
*Every day something caught my attention!*
**All in all:**
*. . . it was a ball!!*

(Alice Mountbatten)

### 2.1.3 Sesame room

*Escape . . .*

*World of hate*

*Questions and demands*

*Frustration and pressure*

*White walls and square desks*

*Green board and chalk-dust*

*Tests – Disappointment*

*Enter . . .*

*World of knowledge*

*Land of dreams*

*Answers and understanding*

*Coloured walls and easy chairs*

*Flowers and art.*

*Experience – Happiness.*

(Bruce Donne)

### 2.2 Post-course assessment of the attitude of the students to Shakespeare

When they were asked to describe how they had felt about Shakespeare at school the following reactions were recorded:

"I was very negative . . . I found the language difficult and I didn't understand or like the play. In fact a Shakespeare play was just a vague mess."

"At school Othello was difficult . . . even a play at The Space in Cape Town didn't help. I understood the story and little else."

"We had months and months of Shakespeare and then had to learn answers to questions off by heart."

Of the ten students only one said that she had always enjoyed Shakespeare. Post-course feedback included comments like:

"Shakespeare is easy . . . it's fun!"

"The play was part of me."

"I gained tremendous insight into people and their motives."

"For the first time I can speak with confidence about Shakespeare."

It would seem that the presentation of Shakespeare at school level through the medium of Suggestopedia could not only combat aversion, but could also increase understanding of the play and appreciation for Shakespeare's literary genius.

At college level the more conventional teaching method of lectures plus critical analyses of the text by the class as a whole or in groups has proved to be successful in the past. However, the use of Suggestopedia could bring about an increase in:

- student involvement
- character identification and empathy
- unusual spontaneous retention of quotations and
- factual details
- understanding and insight
- enthusiasm for and enjoyment of Shakespeare.

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# Rekenaars in Taalonderrig[1]

Dr. J.J. Botha

The aim of the article is:

(1) to illustrate the uses of computers in language teaching with regard to the teaching of writing and reading, and language study;

(2) to give guidance about the introduction of computers in language teaching; and

(3) to supply information about the availability of suitable programmes.

Die doelstelling met hierdie artikel is om:

(1) die gebruike van rekenaars in taalonderrig ten opsigte van skryf- en leesonderrig asook taalstudie, toe te lig;

(2) rigting te gee oor die inskakeling van rekenaars in die taalonderrigsituasie; en

(3) inligting te verskaf oor die verkryging van geskikte programme.

## 1 Inleiding

'n Mens kan aanneem dat die meeste leerkragte vertroud is met rekenaars en sekere basiese funksies. Daarom sal daar kortliks 'n aanduiding gegee word wat met 'n enkele term bedoel word. Die belangrikste term vir hierdie lesing is RGTO – **rekenaargebaseerde taalonderrig**. Verder moet 'n mens onderskei tussen die mikrorekenaar en die programme wat gebruik word. Elke mikrorekenaar **kán** byvoorbeeld 'n woordverwerkingsprogram hanteer. 'n Program is dus iets wat gebruik word om die rekenaar 'n spesifieke taak te laat uitvoer.

## 2 Gebruike van rekenaars in taalonderrig

**Algemene opmerkings:** Die implementering van mikrorekenaars in taalonderrig vereis o.a. die volgende:

**(a) 'n Gesindheidsverandering** en die regte ingesteldheid teenoor die rekenaar en die gebruik daarvan in taalonderrig. 'n Rekenaar moet nie gesien word as 'n bedreiging of iets wat die plek van die leerkrag kan inneem nie; dit is bloot 'n hulpmiddel.

**(b) Administratiewe veranderings:** dit sluit o.a. die aanpassing van roosters in. Dit is nie moontlik om rekenaars bloot aan te haak by bestaande onderrigprogramme nie – dit verseker verkeerde gebruik van die apparaat. Soos beplanning nodig is vir die gebruik van die truprojektor of kassetspeler, so ook vir ander tegnologie. Dit vereis dus 'n langer termyn beplanning as op 'n week tot week basis.

Die volgende aspekte behoort aandag te geniet:

1 **Betrek kollegas** wat bereid is om saam te werk – nie noodwendig in dieselfde taal nie. 'n Spanbenadering het baie meer voordele as eenmanpogings. Probeer die skoolhoof en ander in gesagsposisies aan die kant van die rekenaars kry deur hulle te vertel en te **wys** wat met RGTO gedoen word. Skakeling met ouers wat rekenaarkundig is en in taalonderrig belang stel, is uiters noodsaaklik – veral as daar van administratiewe kant nie genoeg tyd, belangstelling en ondersteuning is nie.

2 **Interesseer** die **leerlinge** deur hulle gou en effektief aan die werk te kry op rekenaars. 'n Rekenaarklub met die oog op taalonderrig is nie die gewenste oplossing nie aangesien dit gewoonlik na skool gehou word en net reeds belangstellende leerlinge betrek. Verder kan sodanige aktiwiteite ook bots met na-skoolse

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[1] Lesing gelewer voor taalleerkragte van die Stellenbosse skole, 18 Februarie 1987

aktiwiteite. Die doel van hierdie poging is juis om ook diegene wat meen hulle kan dit nie doen nie, te betrek. Vermy dus leerling-eksklusiwiteit as dit by rekenaars kom!

3 Begin **gebruik bestaande fasiliteite** so vinnig moontlik – dit toon die belangstelling van 'n taaldepartement en maak deure oop vir verdere en meer omvattende gebruik.

4 Betrek **kollegas** in **ander vakrigtings** sodat 'n span gebou kan word. Sodoende word verhoed dat dit lyk asof taaldepartemente alleen die mikro's geannekseer het. Die leen van apparaat deur personeel vir vakansies behoort baie aandag te geniet – sodoende word die bekendstelling van apparaat en die gebruik bevorder met die oog op toepassings in die skool.

5 Word 'n vriendelike **bron van inligting** vir ander skole en kollegas in die omgewing. Die deling van fasiliteite word 'n werklikheid en moontlik ook later van leerkragte. Informasie oor rekenaars en programme kan nou reeds gemaklik en sonder groot onkoste gedeel word.

6 Stel **finale doelstellings** so vroeg as moontlik duidelik en bepaal wat byvoorbeeld oor 'n 12 maande-tydperk bereik moet word. Dit help om doelgerig te werk, maar ook om verdere beplanning sinvol te laat verloop.

### 2.1 Skryfonderrig

Sommige leerkragte oorsee beskou 'n woordverwerkingsprogram (WVP) as die kragtigste program in die onderrig van skryfwerk. Ook dit kan nie die onderwyser vervang nie – dit is bloot aanvullend.

**Tradisionele** metode van skryfonderrig: Dit gaan gepaard met swoeg en sweet – en die leerling is dankbaar wanneer die taak voltooi is en een maal oorgeskryf is in 'n netjiese boek. Dis 'n tydrowende aktiwiteit. Die ideaal is dat die skryfopdrag heelwat moet kan verbeter van die eerste kopie tot die inlewering daarvan.

Met die **rekenaar** beskikbaar, kan van die leerling verwag word om 'n WVP te gebruik. Hy leer o.a. om te TIK. Verder, om agter/voor die sleutelbord te dink. Dit leer ook die leerling om 'n skryfopdrag **te beplan**. Deur 'n rekenaar hiervoor te gebruik, kan 'n aanvanklike raamwerk maklik gewysig word ten einde 'n beter resultaat te kry. Dit is egter belangrik dat 'n leerling moet leer om vooraf beplanning te doen vir skryfopdragte.

Redigering is eenvoudig en 'n leerling sal vind skryfwerk is vinniger, makliker en minder tydrowend. Dit verbeter sy houding t.o.v. skryfwerk en verhoog die kwaliteit. Leerling kan meer besonderhede gemaklik invoeg in skryfwerk. Met 'n WVP is dit nie nodig om 'n werkstuk oor te skryf nie.

Die leerkrag kan meer van leerlinge verwag indien 'n WVP gebruik word. Verder kry hy/sy ook 'n netjiese, leesbare kopie. Dit vergemaklik weer die nasienwerk.

**Daar is verskeie redes waarom 'n WVP in skryfwerk gebruik behoort te word:**

1 Dit is deel van die **naskoolse** wêreld – besigheidswêreld en universiteite. Woordverwerking word al meer deel van leerlinge en werkende persone se daaglikse aktiwiteite.

2 Die meeste **universiteite** stel hierdie **fasiliteite** aan studente beskikbaar (vgl. Drexell Universiteit waar studente mikrorekenaars teen afslag kan koop en waar dit feitlik as vereiste gestel word dat studente getikte werkstukke sal inlewer). Die keuse van programme en die gebruik daarvan is 'n groter probleem as die beskikbaarstelling van rekenaars.

3 Daar is 'n aantreklike moontlikheid vir die gebruik van rekenaars in taalonderrig. Sommige WVP is gerig op 'n **onderrigfunksie**, bv. Bank Street Writer.

4 WV-programme is **nie metodiek-gebonde nie**. Dus bied hulle 'n vryheid van gebruik wat dikwels nie vir ander programme geld nie. Tekskritiek-programme is dikwels aan 'n bepaalde metodiek gekoppel.

5 WV-programme het ook 'n voordeel vir leerlinge wat nie na skool verder studeer nie maar in 'n **kantoor** gaan werk.

**Voordele van woordverwerking vir skryfwerk:**

1 Die **hersiening** van skryfwerk is soveel makliker. Herskrywe/ hersiening is 'n belangrike deel van die skryfproses. Die student moet leer: **herskryf wat alreeds herskryf** *is*. Verder: spel- en tikfoute (e.g. veral in Engels) kan makliker

opgespoor en reggemaak word met **spelprogramme**. Dit bied waardevolle hulp vir 'n leerling of student en spaar tyd vir die leerkrag. **Tekskritiek** of stylontleders vir Engels is gewoonlik nie onfeilbaar nie maar wel 'n groot hulp in die uitwys van blatante tekortkominge ten opsigte van styl.

2 Dit maak ook **tik makliker** deur die outomatiese omvou van woorde aan die einde van 'n reël. Die student hoef dus nie stadiger te tik aan die einde van 'n reël om woorde in te pas nie. Woordverwerking verbeter ook die voorkoms en leesbaarheid van dokumente.

## 2.2 Leesonderrig op rekenaars

### *2.2.1 Laerskool*

#### *(a)* Leesonderrig ter wille van vlotheid

Leesonderrig sluit onder andere die volgende aspekte in: vlot lees in die moedertaal (dus ook woordeskatontwikkeling), vlotlees in 'n tweede taal (ook woordeskatontwikkeling). Hierby eindig leesonderrig op laerskool nie. Die lees van inhoudsvakke is ook belangrik – veral met oog op die hoërskool en latere studie.

Woordeskatoefening op rekenaars word binne of buite konteks gedoen. Daar is meriete in elkeen van hierdie benaderings. Oor laasgenoemde aspek kan daar nou meer inligting verstrek word:

Grammatika en woordeskat kan saam ontwikkel word. Vgl. John Higgins se *Storyboard* vir BBC. Teks word vir 'n paar sekondes gewys en dan vervang met strepies op die skerm sodat 'n leerling self die letters en woorde kan invul. Die teks word dus herbou. Twee soorte hulp is beskikbaar, nl. wat is volgende die woord? en wat is die betrokke voor- of agtervoegsel? Hierdie benadering vra groot konsentrasie maar is motiverend.

Verder vir BBC: *Restore* – gebaseer op 'n clozetoets. 'n Leerling het verskeie opsies: sien hele teks voor begin, hoeveel woorde tussen elke gaping, volgorde waarin gapings ingevul word, ens. Dit gee leerlinge heelwat beheer oor die program; dit bied ook oefening in 'n verskeidenheid vaardighede soos vluglees en loerlees.

Die rekenaar moet nie net as drilmeester gesien word nie. Dit bied die moontlikheid om leesonderrig op **verskillende vlakke** vir verskillende groepe leerlinge te gee.

Vir IBM is *Missing Links* 'n program soortgelyk aan *Restore* – dit maak gebruik van paragrawe uit bekende klassieke verhale. Enkele letters in woorde kan as leidrade gegee word.

### *2.2.2 Hoërskool*

Vir leeswerk op hoërskool kan die klem meer val op praktiese leesstrategieë met die oog op leerlinge se studie. Hier word veral aan die volgende gedink:

Leerlinge moet leer om inligting uit 'n **konteks** te bekom in leeswerk. Moontlik kan daar ook voorsiening gemaak word vir oefeninge in interaktiewe woordeboek-gebruik. Daar kan nie sondermeer aanvaar word dat leerlinge weet om 'n eentalige woordeboek korrek te gebruik nie.

Verder is daar ook lees vir 'n spesifieke *doel*: vluglees, loerlees en voorspelling van wat kom met die oog op insig-lees. Daar moet ook aandag aan verskeie kommunikasiekenmerke soos deur skrywer oorgedra, gegee word. In gewone handboeke word te min informasie vir oefeninge gegee; daar vind ook nie 'n oordrag van hierdie leesvaardigheid na alledaagse leesbehoeftes plaas nie.

Daar is verder leesonderrig in *spesifieke inhoudsvakke*: dit bied 'n moontlikheid om kollegas uit ander vakgebiede te betrek. Vergelyk ook die vroeëre standpunt oor die betrokkenheid van ander kollegas.

**Nuwe moontlikhede** in leesontwikkeling en daarmee saam taalontwikkeling, sluit die volgende in: fantasie-avontuur – alle informasie vir 'n leerling word in konteks gegee; daar is medewerking van verskillende leerlinge om die storie te voltooi na aanleiding van die konteks verskaf deur rekenaar. Dit bied ook moontlikhede vir die integrering van lees en skryf. Voorts is daar ook: kreatiewe leeswerk – verskillende titels vir stories waarvan die eerste paar paragrawe verskaf word, word deur die rekenaar gegee. Dit is hoogs motiverend vir leerlinge in groepwerk; verder is daar ook simulasies – hulle word tot 'n groot mate deur leerlinge beheer terwyl die rekenaar inligting wat deur die leerlinge verskaf word, verwerk.

Lees en woordeskat is 'n gebied waar die rekenaar 'n groot potensiaal het en reeds lankal benut word.

Voorgeskrewe boeke – kort vrae kan oor die inhoud van , bv. Shakespeare of ander voorgeskrewe boeke gestel word.

## 2.3 Taalstudie

### *2.3.1 Kommunikatiewe taalonderrig*

Taalstudie (ook bekend as *grammatika*) kan gemaklik deur middel van rekenaars onderrig word. Afgesien van verrykingswerk kan daar ook aanvullende of selfs remediërende werk gedoen word. Tot dusver het die meerderheid taalonderwysers net aan drilwerk gedink as dit gaan om taalonderrig in RGTO. Dit word ook bewys deur die soort programme wat geredelik op die mark beskikbaar is.

In die laaste twee tot drie jaar het taalonderwysers wat by RGTO betrokke was, almeer die klem laat val op kommunikatiewe programme. Dit is in lyn met die kommunikatiewe benadering in taalonderrig. Hierdie benadering het onder andere klem gelê op kreatiewe skryfwerk (eerste en tweede taal) asook ander soorte kreatiewe gebruik van taal.

Al meer programme wat hierdie benadering as basis het, raak beskikbaar. Daarom moet leerkragte ook in hierdie rigting soek wanneer programme ontwikkel of aangekoop word. Hier onder word enkele soorte programme bespreek wat in die kommunikatiewe benadering gebruik kan word.

- *Simulasies*. Met simulasies word bedoel daardie aktiwiteite wat poog om iets van die werklike teikensituasie t.o.v. taal na te maak. Daar is dus 'n poging deur simulasies om die leerlinge aan taalopdragte in die praktyk bloot te stel terwyl hulle nog in die klaskamer is. Rekenaars het in hierdie opsig twee belangrike aspekte bygedra: redelike komplekse situasies kan op 'n deurlopende basis geskep word; hulle kan ook op 'n deurlopende basis aan die leerlinge terugvoering gee oor die vordering.

In gevalle waar grammatika dus wel doelgerig onderrig moet word, kan hierdie aktiwiteit gemaklik met simulasies gekoppel word. Sodoende word 'n dikwels droë les interessant vir leerlinge.

In RGTO moet dus gepoog word om die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van leerlinge so ver moontlik te bevredig. Vir hierdie doel moet **geskikte** taalmateriaal gebruik word. 'n Simulasie maak dit moontlik om leerlinge in pare of klein groepies rondom rekenaars te groepeer waarin taal gebruik word ter wille van die spel maar tot voordeel van die onderrigsituasie.

Simulasies kan help dat leerlinge makliker aan rolspeel in 'n klas sal deelneem maar dit is 'n byvoordeel en nie 'n direkte doelstelling van simulasies nie.

'n BBC-program wat vir simulasies geskryf is, is *Yellow River Kingdom*. Die doel was om strategieë te bevorder maar terselfdertyd geleentheid vir taalgebruik te skep. Leerlinge moes besluite neem oor die toekenning van natuurlike hulpbronne tot voordeel van die gemeenskap in die Kingdom. Vir hierdie simulasie is die leerlinge vooraf voorberei t.o.v. die taal wat hulle sou benodig asook die rolle wat gespeel moes word. Dit sluit aan by die benadering dat geen leerling aan 'n program blootgestel moet word sonder goeie voorbereiding nie.

Die simulasie het stadig gevorder maar die hele groep is aangemoedig om deel te neem. Hulle keuse van taalgebruik was gepas vir die rolle wat gespeel is. Baie gou het hulle saamgespan as groep om die rekenaar te oorwin!

- *Probleemoplossing*. Hierdie tipe program sluit baie nou aan by simulasies. Dit verskil egter daarin dat die klem hier altyd val op die oplossing van 'n probleem terwyl simulasies ook ander doelstellings mag hê.

Verskeie probleemoplossings wat vir RGTO bruikbaar is, is nie aanvanklik daarvoor geskryf nie (vgl. *The Pond* en *The Factory* – vir IBM). Verskeie simulasies en probleemoplosprogramme bestaan ook vir die BBC.

- *Taalspeletjies op rekenaars*. Daar moet onderskei word tussen die sogenaamde arkade-speletjies en rekenaarspeletjies. Eersgenoemde (wat ook op rekenaars beskikbaar is) vereis eerstens 'n hand- en oogvaardigheid. Verder het hierdie speletjies ook gewoonlik hopeloos te min taal om enigsins van waarde te wees vir die taalonderwyser. Voorbeelde is *Space Invaders*, *Packman* en ander met verwante name.

Taalspeletjies op rekenaars daarenteen is spesiaal vir taalonderrig geskryf. Alhoewel die primêre doel 'n speletjie is, kan heelwat taal daardeur geleer word. Hoe beter die speletjie, hoe groter is die gevaar dat die leerlinge net op die spel-aspek sal konsentreer. Daar moet dus 'n goeie balans tussen spel en die leer van taal gehandhaaf word. Voorbeelde hiervan vir die IBM is *Grammar Examiner*, *Missing Links* en *Wordscope*.

## 3 Inskakeling by die onderrigprogram

### 3.1 Administratiewe riglyne

Dit moet duidelik gestel word dat die inskakeling van rekenaars by die taalonderrigprogram nie terloops kan geskied nie. Deeglike beplanning is nodig – verkieslik in oorleg met persone wat ondervinding het van rekenaargebruik in hierdie opsig, maar ook met die skoolhoof. Daar moet **tyd** ingeruim word op die rooster sodat die leerlinge by die rekenaars kan uitkom.

Verder moet die leerkrag ook weet in watter aspekte van die onderrigprogram die rekenaars benut kan word, bv. skryfopdragte. Daar moet ook gekyk word na die manier waarop die leerlinge die rekenaars kan benut binne 'n spesifieke onderrigprogram.

## 4 Programme beskikbaar en moontlik bruikbaar

### 4.1 Verskillende benaderings tot verkryging van programme

Die taalonderwyser het hoofsaaklik drie maniere waarop programme bekom kan word: koop, skryf self, of koop en wysig. Elkeen van hierdie maniere het voordele en nadele soos hierna uitgewys sal word.

*4.1.1 Gekoopte programme:* om hierdie soort programme te gebruik, is niks moeiliker as die gebruik van 'n klankkasset nie (sic!). Dit is gewoonlik relatief maklik om die instruksies te volg en die program aan die gang te kry.

Die kwaliteit en koste van hierdie soort programme sal wissel. Daar mag ook ekstra koste ingebou wees indien ekstra kopieë verlang word. Programme van hierdie aard is nie geredelik beskikbaar in Suid-Afrika nie.

'n Verdere aspek van hierdie soort programme is dat hulle dikwels nie nou verbonde aan 'n handboek is nie. Dit hang egter saam met die onderwyssstelsel waarin dit gebruik word. In Suid-Afrika sal dit moeilik (alhoewel wenslik) wees om programme by alle bestaande sillabusse te laat aansluit.

Indien programme te nou gekoppel is aan handboeke kan hulle gevaar loop om in onbruik te verval wanneer die betrokke handboek nie meer gebruik word nie.

*4.1.2 Skryf self programme:* Indien 'n leerkrag tyd het om self programme(-d ontwerp en te programmeer, is daar verskeie opsies oop.

(a) Gebruik **programdoppe** (outeurstelsels) waarvan die programmering (dus rekenaarkode) reeds gedoen is. Die leerkrag hoef dus nie self te programmeer nie maar kan sy eie taalmateriaal invoeg deur die opsies in die program te gebruik. Die voordele van hierdie benadering is duidelik. Daar is egter ook **nadele** aan verbonde: dit sluit enige oorspronklike, kreatiewe manier van rekenaargebruik uit. Die onderwyser is uitgelewer aan die idees van die ontwerper van die program. Dit is egter 'n makliker manier om met programontwikkeling te begin as om van meet af aan te leer programmeer.

(b) Gebruik **outeurstale** – dus rekenaartale wat spesiaal vir opvoedkundige doeleindes ontwerp is en dus relatief maklik aangeleer kan word, bv. *Pilot*, *Extol* (vir BBC). Laasgenoemde is spesiaal deur 'n taalonderwyser ontwerp vir taalonderrig.

Die twee voordele hieraan verbonde, is: dit maak dit moontlik om op 'n redelike pynlose manier by programontwerp betrokke te raak; verder kan korter programme aanvanklik geskryf word. Die gebruiker sal egter nie leer om gesofistikeerde programme hiermee te skryf nie; aan die anderkant sal hy minder tyd benodig om wel programme te skryf.

Sommige leerkragte mag later voel dat selfs outeurstale te beperk is en dan begin kyk na 'n rekenaar of programmeertaal, bv. BASIC wat nie so basies eenvoudig is as wat die naam te kenne gee nie! Daar is voordele aan 'n taal soos BASIC verbonde maar dit het ook sy beperkings.

*4.1.3 Koop en wysig programme:* baie taalprogramme wat tans in die handel beskikbaar is, laat die moontlikheid vir leerkragte om hulle eie materiaal ook in te voeg, bv. *Grammar Examiner* en *Missing Links*. Alhoewel hierdie programme nie nommer-pas mag wees vir 'n betrokke klas nie, kan die leerkrag met 'n minimum kennis van die rekenaartaal tog self paragrawe of ander teksmateriaal invoeg sodat die materiaal aansluit by die onderrigprogram. Op hierdie manier kan *Grammar Examiner* ook vir Afrikaans gebruik word. Die enigste probleem is egter dat die instruksies in die program nog in die oorspronklike taal sal wees. In die geval van programme wat in BASIC geskryf is, kan self selfs die instruksies vertaal word sodat dit deur Afrikaanssprekende leerlinge gebruik kan word.

## 5 Samevatting

Rekenaars kan 'n sinvolle aanvulling in taalonderrig wees – nie om die plek van leerkragte in te neem nie. Dit vereis egter deeglike beplanning en besinning oor die rol en plek daarvan. Daarom sal taalonderwysers self in groepies by hulle onderskeie skole verder moet aandag gee aan die saak. Hulle kan ook verder met kundiges in hierdie verband beraadslaag in verband met spesifieke toepassings.

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PER LINGUAM VOL. 3 NO. 1 1987

# A computer programme for sentence comprehension

Sascha W. Felix

This paper presents the outlines of a computer programme for the analysis of English sentences. The programme is written in BASIC and implemented on a Sharp MZ 80 B. Its theoretical orientation is Chomsky's theory of government and binding. The programme will thus distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, give a structural description of input sentences and state reasons for ungrammaticalities. At present the programme handles successfully main and embedded clauses (long distance), wh-movement and NP-movement in passives.

Met hierdie artikel word 'n rekenaarprogram beskryf waarmee sinsontleding (Engels) gedoen kan word. Die program is in BASIC geskryf en word geïmplementeer op 'n Sharp MZ 80 B. Die teoretiese onderbou berus op Chomsky se teorie vir regering en binding. Gevolglik is die program in staat om te onderskei tussen grammatikale en ongrammatikale sinne, dit kan 'n strukturele beskrywing gee van gegewe sinne en redes aandui vir ongrammatikaliteite. Tans hanteer die program hoof- en bysinne (lang afstand), wh-verskuiwing en NP-verskuiwing in passiewe sinne.

## 1 Introduction

In recent years there has been a growing interest in the development of theoretical models for a human sentence parser (Fodor 1978; Frazier & Fodor 1978; Wanner & Maratsos 1978; Frazier et al. 1983; Johnson-Laird 1983). These models are theoretical in the sense that researchers have attempted to specify some general properties that must be minimally attributed to a parser which is to handle successfully sentences of a specific format. In general, these are sentences whose surface structure may lead a parser working linearly from left to right to choose an incorrect structural description without being able to discover the correct solution until at a much later parsing stage. Consider sentence (1) and (2):

(1) who did the teacher promise to reconsider the problem

(2) who did the teacher promise to write a book about

Since *promise* optionally takes an object, the parser may be led to assume that *who* is the object of *promise* by the time it arrives at the embedded sentence. This assumption is, of course, correct for (1), but incorrect for (2). In the latter case, however, the parser cannot discover its error until it has worked through to the end of the sentence.

Much current debate focuses on the question of what kind of linguistic theory a successful parser must be based on (Berwick & Weinberg 1983). Presently the two most likely candidates seem to be Gazdar's generalized phrase structure grammar (GPSG), (Gazdar 1982) and Chomsky's theory of government and binding (GB), (Chomsky 1981).

This paper is a first report on a project currently pursued at the University of Passau in which we attempt to develop a computer programme that reflects some of the major theoretical considerations of the parsing literature. In order to see at the same time whether or not such a goal can be achieved with fairly simple and unsophisticated equipment, we use a personal computer Sharp

MZ 80B and BASIC as the programming language (BASIC = Beginner's All-Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code).

Although it is obvious that the present programme is far from being an even remotely psychological model of human sentence parsing, we have imposed a number of basic requirements on the programme, which, in a sense, reflect typical properties of human sentence comprehension. Following this guideline we eventually hope to gain insight into human parsing by studying the formal properties of a successful computer programme.

The primary requirement is, of course, that the computer system should be able to assign the correct structural description to the sentence to be parsed. However, the system should also be able to handle ungrammatical sentences and identify them as such. That is, the system should provide grammaticality judgments on sentences. As a final requirement, the system should identify different kinds of ungrammaticality. Consider (3)–(5):

(3) *loves Mary old the man

(4) *who does Mary love the man

(5) *who does Mary love John and

Even though (3)–(5) are all ungrammatical, speakers of English have fairly clear intuitions about the fact that these sentences are ungrammatical for different reasons. In a similar manner, we expect the computer system not only to identify ungrammatical sentences, but also to specify the kind of ungrammaticality.

The linguistic theory which the system operates on is Chomsky's theory of government and binding (1981). The crucial feature of this theory is that it contains not only rules of grammar but also conditions for well-formedness, that is, constraints on the output of the rules. Consequently, one part of the computer programme will analyse the input sentence according to these rules, that is assign a structural description to the sentence, and another part will check whether or not the structural description meets the conditions for well formed syntax. It is thus obvious that an input sentence may fall through at two different levels. Either the system will not be able to assign a structural description to the input sentence, which would be the case, for example, in (3), or the structural description will fail to meet any one of a certain number of output constraints which would happen for sentences such as (4) and (5). Depending on where the sentence falls through, the system will identify different kinds of ungrammaticality. Further details will be specified in section 2.

It is self-evident that in developing a computer programme for linguistic analysis one has to decide what a programme, as yet incomplete, should be able to do and what appears to be dispensable at the present stage. So something needs to be said about the possibilities and limitations of the programme as it presently stands.

Some limitations are purely system-internal. For example, no input sentence may be longer than 53 symbols (including spaces), which simply reflects the fact that in the system we are using, alphanumeric variables are limited to that length. For longer sentences one would need more than one variable. In principle, this is no problem, but it would merely make our problem more complex at a level which does not seem very interesting.

Other limitations reflect deliberate decisions of preference on our part. First, the system ignores morphology. It does not distinguish singular from plural, nor past tense from present tense. Since we are primarily interested in syntax, in particular in the types of structures that have motivated recent research in parsing mechanisms, this limitation does not affect our principal goal.

At present the lexicon comprises sixty two items, so the system will accept relatively few sentences. To those familiar with the linguistic literature it will come as no surprise that most sentences are about John loving Mary or about someone saying or believing so. Expanding the lexicon is, of course, a matter of spending a few more hours on routine work rather than on creative work.

Finally, the system does not accept more than one auxiliary or adverbials or prepositional phrases for which the verb is not subcategorized. This latter fact is obviously a more serious limitation which will have to be remedied as soon as the programme accomplishes the essentials.

Apart from these limitations the system accepts sentences of any complexity. In particular, it can handle any type of constituent co-ordination and any number of sentence embeddings, except relative clauses. It furthermore accepts passives as instances of NP-movement and it handles wh-movement including long distance extractions. Of course, these are all fairly modest accomplishments and it is clear that there is more the system can't do than what it can do. However, the way the system does what it can do provides interesting insights into how a parser has to be constructed.

## 2 Programme structure

The programme consists of three essentially independent parts:

(1) *preparation routine*

(2) *parsing routine*

(3) *well-formedness routine*

The motivation of the first part is purely system-internal, since the computer accepts the input sentence merely as an alphanumeric variable consisting of a certain number of symbols. Before the actual analysis can start, it is thus necessary to segment the input sentence into words and to identify the word class of each lexical item. This is accomplished in the preparational routine. The second part contains the parsing routine. Its input is a sequence of alphanumeric variables, each variable representing one lexical item associated with the word class it belongs to. The output of the parsing routine is conventional labelled bracketing. If a sentence has been successfully parsed – which might not be the case, as we will see in section 2.2 –, the labelled bracketing will be transferred as input to the third part. The well-formedness routine checks the sentence structure for possible violations of principles of universal grammar. If no violations are found the sentence will be qualified as "grammatical", otherwise as "ungrammatical" with indications of which principle(s) is/are violated. I will discuss these three parts of the programme in turn.

### 2.1 The preparation routine

After displaying the main menu, the system will first read the lexicon which at present contains sixty two items and store it in a specific memory area for immediate access. Each lexical item is associated with a set of four variables. The first specifies the word class; the second various information data as, for example "operator" in the case of wh-words. The third variable contains the lexical item's subcategorization frame (if any). The fourth variable is currently empty (= O). The system will now ask for the sentence to be analysed and this is entered in conventional spelling. After the input has been completed, the system will segment the sentence into words by simply using spaces as cues. That is, any sequence of letters surrounded by spaces is taken to be a word. Subsequently the list of words identified is displayed on the screen accompanied by the option of returning to the input routine in case of error.

The next step is to identify each word's lexical category and, again, to display the result on the screen. This is done essentially by running through the lexicon memory and by storing the contents of the first variable as soon as the lexical item has been found. If the sentence contains a word that is not in the lexicon, the display will be "no lexical entry for X". In this case it is possible to return to the input routine for a new sentence.

This completes the preparation routine of the programme. The final display of this part is a concatenated sequence of lexical category symbols, for "Mary loves a nice boy" it will be N+V+Det+A+N.

Internally the system will work with this sequence of category symbols rather than with the sequence of actual lexical items. It returns to the lexical item only if decisions have to be taken that depend on subcategorization information. This is at present only the case with verbs. That is, if the system encounters the category symbol V, it will look which actual lexical item V stands for, and will then decide, on the basis of that particular item's subcategorization frame, on the next step. It is clear that this routine can and must be extended to other lexical categories, for example nouns, ("the claim that S").

### 2.2 The parsing routine

The parsing part of the programme is essentially a top-to-bottom and left-to-right routine, working in the way of an ATN (=Augmented Transitional Network) model. That is, the system runs through a prescribed number of networks and attaches the network to the tree-structure once the relevant parses are completed.

At the present stage of our work the system is heavily biased as to what a possible phrase structure tree may look like. It will therefore ignore anything that does not fit its biases, which is an admittedly serious limitation, since any optional constituents that a sentence may contain, in particular adverbials and non-subcategorised prepositional phrases, are simply thrown out during that parse. Under a different perspective we may say that the system is limited to analysing only those elements of the predicate that are dominated by VP or rather V, ignoring all others. However, it should not be difficult to extend the programme to accept also VP-constituents that are optional. In principle, the system should merely close the V after analysing the obligatory predicate constituents, attaching all the rest together with V to V.

The system will first enter the S/COMP network for the analysis of the topmost sentence. If during the subsequent parses the system encounters a new sentence boundary it will return to the S/COMP network starting over again. In this way an unlimited number of embedded sentences can be analysed in principle, although for reasons of memory capacity the actual number is at present limited to two.

The system knows that the initial position of any S is COMP. Currently the system can only identify *that* or wh-words as potential elements of COMP (topicalisations can therefore not be handled). It will thus check if the sentence-initial item is one of these elements and, if so, attach it to COMP. If the system finds *that* in initial position of the topmost S, the sentence will be labelled as "ungrammatical" during the well-formedness routine which will be discussed in detail in section 2.3. For subject sentences ("that John loves Mary surprises me") there will be a restructuring process, so by the time COMP violations are checked, *that* will no longer be in the topmost S. If the system does not find any element that qualifies for COMP, it will assign "e" (empty) to that node.

Since the system knows that COMP is followed by the subject NP it will next enter the NP network. The computer will scan through the subsequent lexical categories until it finds a noun, assuming that that noun is the head of NP. It will further assume that all elements between COMP and the noun are members of the NP. If the noun is the only member, it will immediately attach it to NP.

The system will expect only Det, A and/or Adv to the left of the noun and will analyse the NP accordingly. Co-ordinations are also adequately handled within this routine. If the system encounters a co-ordinator (*and/or*), it will know that the element following the co-ordinator has to be the same as the one preceding it. If it does not find an identical element (e.g. *the nice and man), it will construct one to which it assigns an empty category (EC). In this case the sentence will be ruled out as ungrammatical in the well-formedness routine. Co-ordinated determiners ("the and a man") are ruled out independently.

After this system has worked through all the relevant items it will check whether or not the first noun is followed by a co-ordinator, in which case a further NP is expected and the routine starts over again. Otherwise the system will leave the NP network.

Let us assume that the system does not find a noun between COMP and the first verbal element as in *who loves Mary* or ... *loves Mary old the man*. In this case it will assume a phonetically unrealised NP to which it assigns an EC.

The system now enters the VP network looking for the first verb category. It will then check if there is an AUX to the left of the verb. If there is not, it will again assign an EC to AUX. Once the first verb has been found the system will look up its subcategorization frame. Suppose the verb is transitive. In this case the system will temporarily return to the NP network. If it doesn't find an NP as in *who does John love*, it will again assign an EC to that NP. In general the system will assign an EC to any syntactic category that it expects on the basis of subcategorisations, but doesn't find. Suppose the verb is intransitive. In this case the system closes the VP and will therefore simply ignore any NP that may nevertheless appear.

This procedure has some interesting consequences because subcategorisation violations will be recognised in different ways. Consider (6)–(8):

(6) *who does John see Mary

(7) *John sees

(8) *John runs Mary

The system will correctly reject all three sentences as ungrammatical, but in each case for a different reason. (6) and (7) will pass the parsing routine and be rejected in the well-formedness part in ways to be explained in section 2.3. (8) will be thrown out within the final part of the parsing routine to which I will shortly return.

If the verb is subcategorized for S, the system will return to the S/COMP network and start the routine again in obvious ways. If the verb is subcategorised for more than one category, or for different categories, the system will try out all the various possibilities and look for the respective categories.

At the end of each parsing step as well as the entire procedure the labelled bracketing which the parser has constructed will be displayed on the screen. Crucially, the labelled bracketing may contain more or less material than the original input sentence. It will contain more material if empty categories have been assigned for phonetically unrealised constituents, and less material, if the parser encounters material which it cannot integrate into the tree and therefore ignores. Consider again sentence (8). After the parser has correctly analysed *John runs*, the V will be closed, since run is an intransitive verb. The following NP *Mary* is thus ignored because it does not fit into the tree. For an input sentence such as (8) the parser will simply yield the output (9):

(9) $[_{S}\ [_{NP}\ \text{John}\ ]\ [_{VP}\ [_{AUX}\ e\ ]\ [_{V}\ \text{runs}\ ]]$

In the final step of the parsing routine the system will compare the lexical material in the output, that is, *John runs*, with the input sentence, that is *John runs Mary*. If there is a mismatch between the two, that is, if the input sentence contains lexical material that does not reappear in the parsing result, the sentence will be classified as ungrammatical with the additional indication that it is "unparsable". Unparsable in this sense implies that the parser found material in the input sentence which – in plain language – it did not know what to do with. This will happen in case of certain types of subcategorisation violations and with "mixed-up" word orders.

### 2.3 Well-formedness routine

If a sentence has successfully passed the parsing routine, its labelled bracketing is transferred as input to the well-formedness routine. The output of this part is a grammaticality statement (grammatical versus ungrammatical). If a sentence is found to be ungrammatical, the system indicates which principle of Universal Grammar is violated.

It seems obvious that this part of the programme will eventually turn out to be the most complex routine. At the present stage of our work there are only three areas in which the system is able to detect ungrammaticalities.

First, the topmost sentence is checked for the presence of a complementiser. If it finds, for example *that*, the sentence is classified as ungrammatical. Second, the system checks for empty NP's in co-ordination, in which case the sentence is again labelled as ungrammatical. This subroutine has eventually to be integrated into a check-up for subjacency violation which we have not completed yet. The major part of the well-formedness routine concerns wh-movement, that is the appropriate binding of variables. The system first determines whether or not there is an operator (= wh-word) in COMP. If there is one, the system will scan through the tree structure for empty NPs. If it does not find one, the operator does not bind a variable, thus violating the binding theory and the bijection principle (Chomsky 1982). Under this subroutine a sentence such as (6) will be recognised as being ungrammatical. If the labelled bracketing of a sentence such as (7) contains an empty NP (= the object), but lacks an operator in COMP, this EC will be unbound, violating Principles A and B of the binding theory (Chomsky 1982). Consequently this sentence will be recognised as ungrammatical, too, because of binding violations. More generally speaking, the system checks if each operator binds a variable and if each variable is bound by an operator.

This completes the description of the major features of the programme as it currently stands. We are at this moment working on a subroutine for NP-movement, that is binding of anaphors in accordance with Principle A. I will therefore discuss a few problems faced in this area, and the way in which we plan to solve them.

The system has a few problems in handling NP-movement in simple passives and raising-verb-constructions such as (10) and (11):

(10) John was killed *e*

(11) John seems *e* to love Mary

The system must only know that ECs in the context of passive and raising constructions reflect NP-movement rather than wh-movement and can then check proper binding in ways similar to the previous cases. The crucial problem arises if a sentence contains more than one EC, one of which is a variable, the other an anaphor as in (12):

(12) who does John seem e to love *e*

The system has to know that the first EC is the trace of *John*, while the second is a variable bound by *who*, and not the other way round.

In the case of (12) a simple solution suggests itself. If the number of ECs matches the number of possible binders, the sentence will be grammatical; that is in (12) we have two ECs and two binders (*John* and *who*). Of course, this array of facts is purely accidental as (13) shows, where we have again two ECs but only one lexical binder (*John*):

(13) John seems e to have been killed *e*

The correct solution is, of course, that the system *must* be able to distinguish between anaphors and variables. Crucially, this has to be accomplished by means independent of the presence versus absence of lexical binders.

We are presently working on a solution that relies essentially on Case Theory. Anaphors differ from variables in that the former don't have case, whereas the latter do. This distinction can be determined by the system on the basis of the available labelled bracketing. Thus in (12) the subject-EC does not have Case since the verb is non-tensed, whereas the object-EC receives Case from *love*. The system therefore knows that the first EC must be an anaphor while the second is a variable. Hence it can look for the proper binder in each case. In (13) neither EC receives Case and therefore must be an anaphor.

If this solution turns out to be correct, it will have some interesting consequences, namely that Case Theory must apply before Binding Theory. In other words, different principles of Universal Grammar may have a different status, an idea which may be worth while exploring.

## 3 Conclusion

In this paper we have presented the outlines of a computer programme for the analysis of English sentences. The basic structure of this programme derives from recent considerations in linguistic theory. In particular, the programme takes grammar to be an essentially independent module and distinguishes furthermore between parsing as structure-building governed by rules of grammar and checking well-formedness constraints on output structures.
Although the programme is still in the early stages of development, the general approach appears to be quite promising.

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PER LINGUAM VOL. 3 NO. 1 1987

# The effect of campus unrest on the language proficiency of university students

Carryl Allardice

This report on the extent to which students' English suffers during student unrest is based on responses by a group of black South African students registered for Practical English to a questionnaire administered in the Language Laboratory at a predominantly black university. The rationale behind the questionnaire will be outlined first before proceeding to a detailed analysis of the results.

Hierdie verslag oor die mate waarin studente se Engels gedurende studente-onrus agteruit gegaan het, is gegrond op 'n groep Swart Suid-Afrikaanse studente, ingeskryf vir Praktiese Engels, se antwoorde op 'n vraelys. Die vraelys is deur die taallaboratorium van 'n oorwegend Swart universiteit hanteer. Die doel van die vraelys word eers verduidelik. Daarop volg dan 'n uitvoerige ontleding van die uitslae.

Student unrest has become endemic and an annual occurrence since the Soweto riots in 1976. Prior to that year incidents of unrest were more sporadic. In some years unrest has been very brief (a day or two) and in other years it has lasted longer (three or four weeks).

The reasons for these interruptions in the normal academic programme vary from a purely domestic nature, such as dissatisfaction with food, poor heating, to a more general kind sparked off by national events such as the commemoration of significant events like Sharpeville, Biko Day and so on. Two weeks after the commencement of lectures in 1986, a prolonged stay-away began which lasted for two and a half months, the main reason being domestic.

The group of students who were selected for the investigation and who take the Practical English course, must, as part of their course, attend a weekly language laboratory session each of which consists of a module of work which concentrates on one feature of the English language. Pre- and post-language laboratory lectures are also given weekly. In the end-of-year examination at least one compulsory question is based on language laboratory work (*Practical English* 1986:2). This one-year course carries full academic status for degree purposes and "is primarily a language course aimed at suiting the needs of students taking a variety of degrees in various faculties. It aims at training in effective expression and communication . . ." (Proctor & Verschoor 1978:461). The course includes only two prescribed literary works and does not lead to English II. Although it is regarded as a first-year course, it accommodates students in any year of their undergraduate studies. It is important to bear this in mind when reading the results of the questionnaire as respondents were not only first-year students. Equally important is the fact that the mother tongue of these students is not English, although all university courses are offered through the medium of English. As Vorster and Proctor have pointed out "All black South Africans have a vernacular language, and they all learn both official languages, English and Afrikaans, at school. It is therefore safe to assume that they have no difficulty whatever in identifying either of the two languages, although they may not necessarily be equally competent in them" (1976:103).

It was while monitoring these Practical English students' progress in the language laboratory immediately after their absence of two months (due to student unrest) that I became alarmed at the poor quality of their interaction – especially their very poor listening comprehension in English. Likewise their inability to follow simple instructions and express themselves articulately in English were further cause for distress. Discussions with other academic colleagues, who had encountered similar problems with students returning to lectures after periods of unrest, seemed to confirm my own observations. After a week of lectures the Practical English students' performance in the language laboratory had improved noticeably, no doubt as they became familiar with the English spoken by their lecturers and as they attuned their ears to listening to spoken English. Hence it seemed feasible to test this hypothesized deterioration in the English of this group of students during student unrest.

Despite a fairly extensive literature search there appears to have been nothing published about student unrest in South African universities and its effect on student performance. I realise that any ethnographically-based research of this kind and the hypothesis and issues that it raises may prove contentious and controversial. I am also conscious of how limited the data are presented in this paper, but nevertheless feel that an investigation into this area of student activity is necessary.

## Questionnaire

The questionnaire was drawn up in an attempt to establish: firstly, to what extent students are exposed to English while boycotts are in progress, and, secondly, it attempts to find out whether students experience difficulties with English on their return to lectures after protracted stay-aways, and what exactly, if any, these difficulties are. It seeks to establish which skill – listening-comprehension, writing, notetaking, speaking or reading – presents the most problems for these students.

The structured questionnaire was administered ten days after students had returned to lectures. The total sample consisted of 100 Practical English students who attended Language Laboratory sessions on one day. This sample is part of the total number of 355 students registered for the Practical English course.

There was a 100% questionnaire return and perhaps, because of the assurance of complete anonymity, all the questions with the exception of one question (7.6), were answered by the students. In the case of question 7.6 not every aspect of that particular question was replied to by students, and where there was no response it did not affect the outcome of the survey. The questionnaire and an analysis of it follow. The total percentages (x) of the respondents to each question are given next to that question, as well as the number of those who did not respond, which is indicated by (y).

## Questionnaire and analysis

1 *During the 2 months class disturbances did you read much in English?*
x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 63% |
| NO | 37% |

Just under two-thirds of the students felt they had "read much" while just over a third considered that they had not. The use of the word "much" is ambiguous but an analysis of those who answered in the affirmative reveals in 1.1 and 1.2 a clearer idea of what student perceptions of "much" reading involves.

1.1 *If yes, what did you read?*
x = 63
y = 37

(students were allowed to tick more than one)

| | |
|---|---|
| Textbooks | 17 |
| Novels | 37 |
| Magazines | 41 |
| Newspapers | 44 |
| Other | 3 |

Of the 63% of students who had felt they had done "much" reading (see Question 1 above) it is interesting that only 17% of the whole sample had read their university textbooks. Newspaper reading accounted for 44% of the reading done by these students and was by far the most popular form of reading material. This was closely followed by magazines (41%) and then novels (37%). The three students who had ticked "other" said they had read lecturers' handouts, law reports and comics.

1.2 *Estimate of the amount of time spent reading in English per day* x = 63
y = 37

| | |
|---|---|
| Less than 1/2 hour | 8 |
| 1 hour | 19 |
| More than 1 hour | 36 |

36% of students read for more than one hour a day in English. However, in relation to the total number of students to whom this questionnaire was given just over a third of these students read for more than an hour a day in English – the other two-thirds did not.

2 *To whom did you speak in English?* x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| Fellow students | 49 |
| Members of your family | 7 |
| Shopkeepers | 21 |
| Others | 20 |
| No one | 3 |

Significantly 97% of the students indicated they had spoken English to either fellow students, family members or shopkeepers. 20% under "other" had specified they had spoken English to a variety of people, for example, bursary sponsors, a priest, post office staff, telephone exchange staff, visitors, coloured friends, and in the case of one student – who is on study leave – his colleagues at work. Only 3% said they had spoken no English at all during class disturbances.

3 *Estimate of the amount of time spent listening to English on the radio* x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| Less than 1/2 hour | 27 |
| 1 hour | 16 |
| More than 1 hour | 35 |
| Did not listen to English on the radio | 22 |

35% of the students spent more than 1 hour daily listening to English on the radio. The 22% who did not listen to any English and those 27% who listened for less than 1/2 hour daily together represent 49% (almost 50% of the sample) whose daily exposure to spoken English on the radio was low.

4 *Estimate of the amount of time daily spent watching English programmes on T.V.* x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| Less than 1/2 hour | 13 |
| 1 hour | 21 |
| More than 1 hour | 50 |
| Did not watch English programme on T.V. | 16 |

During the student unrest, 50% of the students daily watched English programmes on T.V. In relation to those students who did not listen to English on the radio (22%) television is a more popular medium for listening to English with only 16% not watching it.

5 *Did you attend any functions that were in English* x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 28 |
| NO | 72 |

During the stay-away a significantly large percentage of students said they had not attended any functions where English had been spoken. 28% said they had been to functions where English had been the medium of communication.

5.1 *What were these functions?* x = 28
y = 72

| | |
|---|---|
| Lectures | 0 |
| Meetings | 22 |
| Other | 6 |

None of the 28% who attended functions in English went to any lectures, while 22% went to meetings conducted in English. Of the 6% who attended other functions, 4% went to watch a dramatic play in English, 1% attended church and 1% to a university graduation ceremony.

6 *Did you do any writing in English?* x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 71 |
| NO | 29 |

Only a minority (29%) had done no writing in English, while the majority (71%) had written in English during the period of unrest.

6.1 *What did you write in English?* x = 71
y = 29

Students who indicated they had done only one form of writing in English indicated as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Lecture notes | 7 |
| Essays/Assignments | 16 |
| Letters | 24 |
| Other (please specify) | 2 |

Some students indicated they had written combinations of lecture notes, essays and letters.

These students are incorporated in the 71% who responded to the question.

| | |
|---|---|
| Combination (lecture notes, essays, letters) | 22 |

Letter writing was by far the most predominant form of writing as 19 of these students had combinations incorporating letter writing.

7 *When you returned to lectures . . .*

7.1 *Did you experience any difficulties in understanding the sentences your lecturers were saying?*

x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 23 |
| NO | 77 |

Over 75% of the students said they had no difficulties in understanding what lecturers were saying, while just 25% of students indicated that they had experienced difficulties in understanding sentences used by lecturers.

7.2 *Did you experience any difficulties in following instructions given by your lecturers?*

x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 22 |
| NO | 78 |

22% said they had experienced difficulties in following instructions given by lecturers. 78% of the respondents had no problems in following instructions.

7.3 *Did you experience any difficulties in extracting important points from the lectures you attended?*

x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 37 |
| NO | 63 |

On the question of difficulties experienced in extracting important points from lectures, 37% of students experienced problems. 63% had no difficulty at all in extracting important points.

7.4 *Did you experience any difficulties in taking lecture notes from the lectures you attended?*

x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 36 |
| NO | 64 |

36% said they had encountered problems with notetaking while 64% had no difficulties.

7.5 *Were you required to speak in English without prior preparation?*

x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 37 |
| NO | 63 |

37% of students were required to speak in English without prior preparation (e.g. in a tutorial) while 63% were not.

7.5.1 *Difficulties experienced when speaking English with . . .*

x = 37
y = 63

The 37% of students who said they were required to speak in English without preparation were asked if they had experienced difficulties with:

*finding and choosing the right words*

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 30 |
| NO | 7 |

*constructing sentences*

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 26 |
| NO | 11 |

*pronunciation of words*

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 21 |
| NO | 16 |

The problem of finding and choosing the correct English words presented the most difficulties for 81% of the students required to speak in English, while pronunciation caused the least difficulty for only 56% of the students who had to speak in English without prior preparation.

7.6 *Problems experienced in reading*

x = 84
y = 16

*printed English*

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 12 |
| NO | 72 |

*graphs, tables*

x = 83
y = 17

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 39 |
| NO | 44 |

*writing on blackboard*

x = 100
y = 0

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 11 |
| NO | 59 |

*overhead projector transparencies*

x = 90
y = 10

| | |
|---|---|
| YES | 35 |
| NO | 55 |

Of the various forms of written material difficul ties were mainly experienced in reading graphs, tables (39%) and overhead projector transparencies (34%). Printed English and blackboard writing presented fewer problems, 12% and 11% respectively.

### 8 *Students' comments*

x = 69
y = 31

One way the questionnaire tried to monitor students' exposure to English during class disturbances as well as to monitor their difficulties with English was to elicit student reactions to the questionnaire. In this open-ended section 31% did not write anything. 14% of the students responded with writing "No comment", and are included in the 69% of students who are considered to have responded to the statement: "Any comments you may wish to add".

The remaining 55% of students who did react have been grouped, according to the comments they made, as follows:

- "The class disturbance did not affect me in coping with the work we are doing" – 5.
- "I like English very much the only problem I am now facing is the problem of getting more and more vocabulary. This is the thing that affects me the most in English e.g. finding and choosing the right words" – 5.
- "I seem to be improving since the two month's stay aways end" – 2.
- "I realise how much I have missed during class disturbances. I hope we would not get disturbed again" – 6.
- "English is less used during disturbances" – 5.
- "Schoolwork is now congested and now I am appealing to the lecturers to reduce their pace and to offer limited work" – 6.
- "I would like to have some more basics in English so that I can understand it quiet [*sic*] easily" – 11.
- "If I can practice [*sic*] to speak English then I can be alright" – 9.
- "I experienced much confusion on my return from class disturbances" – 6.

**Summary of the results**

In attempting to establish whether or not students' English suffers during disturbances at the University, we can summarise the findings as follows:

- 63% of the students felt they had "read much" during the disturbances.
- The major type of reading material read by students during this period was newspapers. Only a small minority (17%) indicated they had read their university textbooks.
- Approximately one third of the students read for more than one hour per day.
- Almost half the students indicated that their conversations in English had been mostly with fellow students, while only a very small minority (3%) had spoken no English at all.
- Listening to English radio programmes for more than one hour per day is favoured by one third of the students.
- Half of the students spent more than one hour a day watching English television programmes.
- A substantial number of students did not attend any functions conducted in English during the period of class disturbances.
- Of the small number of students who attended functions conducted in English, nearly all attended meetings.
- The majority of students had done some writing in English.
- Letter writing constituted the main format for writing in English by students.
- Three-quarters of the students had no problems on their return in understanding the sentences used by lecturers.
- The great majority of students experienced no difficulties in carrying out instructions given to them by lecturers.
- One third of students found it difficult to extract the important points from lectures.
- More than one third found notetaking a difficult exercise.
- Over one third of students were required to speak in English without preparation.
- Limited English vocabulary was the biggest obstacle for those students who had to speak in English without prior preparation.
- Most students had no difficulty in reading printed English or writing on the blackboard. About half the students experienced problems with reading graphs and tables. Just under 40% of students who responded said they had encountered difficulties in reading overhead projector transparencies.
- The majority of students' comments reveal that they are aware of the backlog of work that has to be covered; their need to practise

speaking English; their lack of vocabulary in English; and their preference for easily understandable "simple" English.

### Discussion of the results

It would seem from the student responses to the questionnaire that the vast majority of Practical English students were exposed to English during the period of unrest. But the level of that exposure can be questioned.

### Reading in English

The picture that emerges is that approximately two-thirds of the students read much in English, although what constitutes reading "much" in English in terms of student perceptions is perhaps an unreliable indicator of how much they actually did read. This correlates with the findings of Proctor and Verschoor on the extent of contact with English claimed by black students. They found that "No definite conclusions can, of course, be made, because individual interpretations of the terms 'a lot of contact' and 'a little contact' vary from student to student" (1978:464).

In order to examine the students' own notions of what "much" reading in English is, the two questions on what they read and for how long were asked. Their prime source of reading material was newspapers and other ephemeral literature (e.g. magazines). Only a very few students (17%) attempted to keep up with their course work by reading their textbooks. Proctor and Verschoor similarly found that "Newspapers seem to be more widely read than books" (1978:463). So it would appear that the standard of English contained in the reading material that the majority of students read was not of the same academic quality as is found in university textbooks. An interesting point to note here is that "students rarely receive books as presents", a fact which emerged in the survey by Proctor and Verschoor, who found that "In Group E no student admitted receiving a book as a gift, and in Group P only 4%" (1978:463).

In terms of the amount of time spent in reading English daily during the two and a half months of student unrest, the majority spent less than one hour a day reading in English. This apportioning of their time to reading in English is obviously affected by conditions in the university residences as evinced by the following student comments:

"Most of the time it is difficult to concentrate on books during class disturbances because of the noise in the hostel e.g. radio and howlers."

"During the time of class disturbances I was not able to do all my normal activities."

"We do not read during these disturbances and even if we do it's usually not enough. Some do not at all."

### Speaking in English

Students' interactions with mother tongue speakers of English during student unrest is extremely low, with 49% reporting that the conversations they held in English were with fellow students. While some students reported that the only time they were required to speak in English was to the telephone operators on the telephone exchange when they asked for a telephone number.

### Listening to English

During this time student exposure to English as spoken on the radio is low, with only a minority listening to English radio programmes for more than one hour daily. The extent of peer group pressure may have some influence on this as one student writes:

"The problem is that at home they do not know English, they are not educated most of them. It is hard for me to listen to English on the radio because they will humiliate me."

However Proctor and Verschoor found "the general trend . . . to be that students listen to radio and recorded music more at home than at university . . . It might be, of course, that at home students have more time and opportunity to listen than at university" (1978:463).

The questionnaire did not ask to which radio station students tuned in to listen to English programmes. Therefore it is not possible to determine the quality of the spoken English that students heard. The quality of English in such terms as register, varies a great deal from one radio station to another. Nevertheless students need to be exposed to the English language in all its diversity which Wilkins (1974:35) says is "language that is rich in its structural range and realistic in its actualization. Such language might well not have been produced specifically for the language learner at all".

Half the students indicated that they watched English programmes on television daily for more than one hour. Again the questionnaire never sought to establish what programmes these were, but the fact that 84% of students watched English television programmes in varying amounts of time daily is significant. It would be interesting to have researched to what extent the visual material contributed to the students' understanding of the language content of such programmes.

While student unrest was in progress only a small minority of students attended functions that were in English. Not one student indicated that he or she had attended a lecture during this period. Although this is not surprising in view of the tremendous solidarity shown by students at such times not to attend lectures (arguably through intimidation by other students), it does reveal the fact that lecturers have little or no contact with their students during any protracted stay-away. As one student commented:

"Disturbances are of no profit to students. There is very little communication between students and lecturers if ever."

This inevitable breakdown in staff/student communication can create a variety of problems when students return to lectures. It can erode the trust and confidence in already established staff-/student relationships to the detriment of all concerned. It can also cause problems for students when lecturers simply "pick up" where they had left off two months previously, assuming that students have kept up by reading textbooks, and have automatically remembered the work done previously in class. A student voices a complaint about this as follows:

"In poetry we didn't do the exercise which we have been given prior [to the class disturbances] with the lecturer and now I have difficulty in answering the questions on poetry because I don't know how to answer poetry questions."

And yet another student writes:

"During the two months disturbances, I found it difficult for me to read and understand some work as scheduled in the course outline without being briefed by a lecturer . . . and as we returned to classes on Monday 19th May, it was difficult for me to connect the previously learnt material with the new information as some work, read during the disturbances, was wrongly interpreted."

Although if reading done during class disturbances leads to incorrect interpretation, this is far easier for lecturers to correct as students have the necessary background knowledge to what is being dealt with in class on their return. If, however, they have done no reading at all – how much greater is the amount of information that lecturers have to cover in class. This is compounded by "the lack of general knowledge among students [which] is even more serious, especially in subjects such as English, where general knowledge is an important prerequisite to the understanding of much of what they have to read" (Proctor & Verschoor 1978:460).

Amongst the small minority of students who indicated they had attended functions in English, 78% of these students said that the function they had attended in English was a meeting. The fact that at student meetings the medium of communication is English is corroborated by a reference made by Kroes (1983:10) to an investigation conducted amongst Blacks throughout South Africa by G.K. Schuring of the Human Sciences Research Council in 1975, which revealed that "English is regarded by Blacks as a prestige language and a language for international communication. It is used at political meetings and at conferences".

And Meerkotter (1985:92) confirms this when he says of English that it "portrays the thoughts about political freedom of the minority of people in this country" and that "English has become the *lingua franca* and first language of South Africa". T.G. Reagan (1985) also says that English functions as a *lingua franca* in the multilingual black community in South Africa, and as the language of wider communication which provides access to the international community. Student comments would support this:

"I would like to know more about English because it is spoken internationally."

"English is the only language we can use to communicate with other people. We stay with

Zulu speekers [*sic*], Tswana speakers, etc. so we need it a lot".

Proctor and Verschoor say "It can be inferred from the answers to the questionnaire that most of these students are intensely aware of the importance of English as an international language and of the richness and status of English literature" (1978:465).

### Writing in English

Most students (71%) did some form of writing in English during the period under review, letter writing being the predominant. It is interesting to note that according to Schuring's work (as quoted in Kroes 1983:10) "letters are often written in English, even to relatives, in preference to the indigenous languages". Lennox-Short (1970:2) maintains that for second language speakers "in personal letters it is permissible to write an approximation to conversational English for this informal communication, [is] often between people who know one another reasonably well . . ." Lennox-Short also cautions that such ". . . conversational communication on paper is inevitably looser and (apart from dialogue) almost always weaker than what is accepted as an adequate written style". While students may well write essays and assignments during this period it seems they might well be prevented by the student caucus from submitting written work for evaluation by lecturers.

### Resumption of lectures

It would seem that the majority of Practical English students who presented themselves for lectures after the period under discussion, were students whose exposure to English had been rather limited. Their coping skills too were severely tried when they returned to classes, to quote two students:

"I experienced much confusion on my return from class disturbances."

"It's difficult to cope up with a lot of academic work since there was a break in classes."

The demands made on most students to adjust from a period of relative inactivity and virtual seclusion from intellectual stimulation to the rigours of a full academic programme, where they are taught in English and bombarded with work, must be indeed frightening. One student referring specifically to the Practical English course writes that it: ". . . seems to be very wide, demanding and confusing. At least something must be done to minimise the amount of work bearing in mind that we have other courses to attend to".

Students are well aware of the volume of work they have missed and that they are expected to work at a faster pace. To quote some students' comments:

"I realise how much I have missed . . . during class disturbances."

"If it was not for the class disturbances I could have gained a lot"

"I think these class disturbances really put me out of the way. I will just have to adjust myself to the present situation."

Proctor and Verschoor also found many of the student responses "implied that they are painfully aware of their inadequacies in the use and study of English" (1978:465).

Some students even suggest prolonging the academic year as a solution to overcoming the shortened number of teaching weeks left.

"We should not close during the June holidays so as to catch up all we have lost during the stayaway."

"My opinion is that we must not have the September vacation."

A few students profess also to being concerned about their lack of marks and the tests they have missed or still have to write.

"My only worry is that I have lost so many marks in my practicals and tutorials."

"I'm having problems on test dates. Sometimes you write three class tests on the same day. I think lecturers must meet before they decide on test dates or else they must ask students how they feel about writing a test on the date which would be proposed by the lecturer."

The necessary adjustment required of students to the lecturing situation that they are confronted with after student unrest is summed up by one student who writes:

"So far I have no problems may be because I am now familiar with the class disturbances as well as the pece [*sic*] which is often used after these class disturbances ie. crash courses."

### Lectures

A substantial number of students said they had not experienced any difficulties in understanding the sentences their lecturers were saying when they returned to lectures. This is substantiated by some of the students' comments:

"I was very happy to find out that I'm still capable to understand what was said by the lecturers, i.e. I'm not that much lost after this 2 months period of disturbance. That have encouraged me to study hard and not to loose [*sic*] hope."

"English is never difficult to me as far as I am concerned."

"I can say that since I have engaged myself in reading, especially in English, I feel proud of myself because I didn't encounter any problems concerning notetaking in class as well [as] grasping and understanding what my lecturers was [*sic*] saying."

"It is not difficult to understand teacher's English provided it is simple English. Big words are boring, fortunately English teacher here at Fort Hare never utter a big word without explaining thereafter."

Wilkins (1974:34) cautions that " . . . if the learner's exposure to language is only exposure to carefully-controlled language, it is only this kind of language that he will learn to comprehend."

Amongst those students (who constituted the minority) that experienced difficulties when they returned to lectures in understanding what lecturers were saying was one student who remarked:

"I would like that the lecturers speak as high as they can and pronounce their words clearly. We take a long time to write notes because we struggle in trying to imagine what the person might be trying to say."

### Lecturers' instructions

Again regarding the question about following instructions given by lecturers, a considerable number of students (70%) experienced no problems.

"I can say I do really understand when a lecturer has given me instructions on what to do. By making use of readings, speaking, writing English I find English it is a little bit easier to understand it."

Conversely another student who did experience problems wrote:

"I am not yet properly understand instruction. But is also confusing."

### Extracting important points

When it came to the problem of extracting important points from lectures, the number of students who had no difficulties dropped to 63%.

The significant increase in the number of students who had trouble with extracting important points highlights a problem area and is endorsed by one student who wrote:

"At the present moment English is being understood although there some problem in a certain part of work – extracting important points."

### Notetaking

The rise in the percentage of students encountering problems in extracting points from lectures remains almost constant, similarly the number of students who had difficulties with taking notes. This problem could be attributed to the pace at which lecturers spoke, as attested to by some student comments:

"The problem I experienced was not due to language, but due to the pace at which lecturers were lecturing."

"The lecturers are so fast, and they are piling us with a lot of work in such a way that I cannot do the whole work given because of the lack of time."

"The 2 months disturbances causes frustration to me because there is too much work to cover. Lecturers are rushing so that by the end of the year they will be through with their work and left us blank."

### Speaking in Lectures

Just over one third of the students were required to speak English without prior preparation. The need for English fluency is important for students who commented:

"I need to speak English daily and every time so as to enable me to be fluent."

"We Science students do encounter problems when coming to English speaking since most things we do are figures and no assignments."

"With English language I am good in listening and reading. The problem lies with the output, meaning that I am not that fluent in speaking and when I write a letter, it takes me quite some time trying to arrange and select words or phrases that will convey the exact impression."

The vast majority of the students who had to speak in English without prior preparation did experience problems in articulation, especially with respect to finding and choosing the right English words, constructing sentences in English and with the pronunciation of English words. Students commented on these trouble areas.

"The problem I find most disturbing is choosing the right words condusive [*sic*] to the context."

"I usually find problems in constructing sentences and in pronunciation."

"Even though I occupied my time during the disturbances by reading and listening, [to] as much English as I can, I still had a problem of phrasing my opinions in English, especially in speech."

The masteries of the pronunciation system always pose problems for second language learners, as Wilkins (1974:31) affirms: "Many adults who otherwise acquire an excellent command of language never overcome the difficulties posed by a new sound system". And according to Mawasha (1978:2) "oral English including pronunciation and intonation, has always presented difficulties to both the Black ESL teacher and his pupil".

Overcoming personal shyness and inhibitions also presents considerable difficulties for students.

"If the lecturer ask [*sic*] the question I'm afraid of answering a question or to comments [*sic*] about [a] question because of my poor English."

"In talks I usually [am] overcome by fearness which make [*sic*] me to be shy although I know a thing."

It is obvious that these students require more oral practice in speaking the language, and several support this idea. One student writes:

"I think that there are to be more practices made so that I can speak English properly and find no problems or difficulties while listening to English programmes especially in radios and I also have difficulties in some other novels that I come across or I happen to read."

### Reading English in lectures

The reaction of most students to reading printed English material was mostly positive, only a small percentage (12%) having difficulties. However, reading graphs and tables was more problematical for students, and those who experienced difficulties as opposed to those who had no difficulties can be reflected as a ratio of 39:44. The majority of students confirmed that reading writing on the blackboard did not pose a problem. But a large number of students made heavy weather of reading overhead projector transparencies. This is substantiated by a student who said:

"It is difficult for one to read what is written on the overhead projector transparencies if the notes are not clearly printed and written."

### Students' attitudes to English

It is clear from many comments that students derive much pleasure from the English language and they look forward to further encounters with the written word. Referring to reading English in general, two students wrote:

"I love English so much. Most of the time I read novels. I have so many novels. I am very much interested in English."

"I am enjoying reading, speaking English all the times."

Proctor and Verschoor corroborate this when they report that "a favourable attitude towards a subject is one of the pre-requisites towards success in that subject. It was therefore illuminating to find a stated preference for English rather than Xhosa both as a teaching medium and as a subject, both at school and at university" (1978:464).

The desire to improve their English proficiency is manifested by students who stated that they:

"Wish to upgrade my English before the end of the year."

"As I am attending lectures no [*sic*] I hope I will improve my English as much as I can."

"It is my sincere wish to know English as I know myself but due to time limiting factors I can't afford. Had there been no school disturbance this year, I would try to read as many literatures as possible to aquaint [*sic*] myself with."

This would support Wilkins' (1974:3) contention that "the ultimate aim in learning a second language must generally be to achieve the same flexibility, the same linguistic creativity, that the native speaker possesses".

An awareness of the obstacles English creates and of the need to master the language is borne out by the comments of some Practical English Students:

"I'm still not knowing the direction of English and how would you preseat it for exams."

"I can say that it is of more importance for someone to involve himself or herself in reading newspapers, novels, etc. so that he/she might not encounter any problems coming to [the] language. This might also help him in increasing his vocabulary so as to move or go smoothly in communicating with his lecturers and as well as notetaking in class."

**Use of the language laboratory**

The need to avail themselves of the facilities of the Language Laboratory in order to help improve their English is also commented on by students.

"The Language Laboratory helps me a lot."

"The programmes are very important and useful. I realise how much I have missed."

". . .my interest in the Language Laboratory course is beyond control."

"Many of the exercises being done in the Language Laboratory are very much helpful especially to those [whose] English is the third or second languages."

**Literature survey and recommendations**

This section will try to put the results of the questionnaire into perspective and attempt to correlate them with research done by others in the field of second language teaching of English, with a view to providing a blueprint for action after future class disturbances.

We first need to examine the milieu that these Practical English students have come from prior to their entering the University of Fort Hare. For despite the fact that these black students at the University have completed at least ten years of English at school, passed all their matriculation subjects through the medium of English and have been exposed to English radio and television in varying degrees, one would hardly perceive such students as having an inadequate knowledge of English. On the basis of their experience at school, a lecturer should be able to assume that these students have a high level of linguistic competence. Furthermore, these students whose mother tongue could be either Sotho, Tswana, Zulu, Xhosa, or even Afrikaans, can be regarded as "highly sophisticated linguistically as they could switch from one code to another . . ." (Rogers 1976:27).

The findings of this survey suggest that students are hampered by a limited vocabulary and largely confined to their university residences because of peer group pressure to keep away from lecture halls, the university library and lectures' offices. Their contact with English speakers is severely curtailed. One can assume that the English of the majority does indeed suffer during this period, especially as Wilkins (1982:33) has reflected ". . .what people learn is determined by or reflected in the nature of the activities they engage in. One aspect of the child's exposure to language is that he spends much more time hearing or listening to language than he does in producing it. This is directly reflected in the type of language ability that he develops". Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982:14) have pointed out that it is also the quality of the language environment that is of paramount importance to success in learning a language. It is Wilkins' belief that this ". . .language learning should take place in a rich linguistic and cultural environment . . ." (1982:39-40). This would lend credence to Burton's view that "Proficiency in using language – in listening and speaking; in reading and in writing – is basic to learning and living. The provision of opportunities for students to practise these skills is now generally recognised as a necessary element in their studies. Without such opportunities, progress in specialist fields is impeded; and ability to use academic and vocational attainments in work and to relate them to social and personal life is diminished" (1976:vii).

The low level of student exposure to English during student unrest is compounded by the fact that the present system of schooling has resulted in students entering the University with an extremely poor command of English. Indeed, the findings of Proctor and Verschoor "confirmed the suspicion that Black students reach university and register for courses in English with very little reading or literary experience behind them" (1978:462). W. Maneli, in a paper delivered at an Alice Teachers' Union Seminar, also confirms this when she says that "aspiring to higher learning (University) is still the GOAL of the average Black pupil – learning English for communication has not caught on" (1985:4). The fact that even if these pupils realise when they enter University that they will need to listen to lectures in English, make notes in English and write examinations in English means that this "realisation of the importance of linguistic competence does not, however, solve the inherent practical problems. The demands of specialist studies leave too few 'contact hours' available for the practice and discussion of 'everyday English' – a limitation that presses as hard upon those whose field is literature as upon those who are economists, geographers, scientists, sociologists or historians" (Burton 1976:vii). And yet Proctor and Verschoor found "that students have twice as much contact with 'a lot' of English at University (apart from lectures in English courses) as they have at home". This they say "is understandable, since English is the medium of instruction" (1978:464).

Although English is the medium through which school subjects are 'taught' to black school pupils, "every teacher is virtually a teacher of English because he presents History/Social Studies/Science/Maths./etc. in English" (Maneli 1985:2). This view is supported by Penny who says "every teacher who teaches through the medium of English is a teacher of English" (Grocott's Mail, 1 August 1986). So each teacher is faced "by a mammoth task – that of having to teach it as a foreign/second language to non-speakers of the language and to fight his limitations 'somehow', being a non-speaker himself" (Maneli 1985:3). Penny also agrees that "one finds teachers who are ill-prepared, unsure of their own grasp of English, and too insecure to use English in the classroom with anything like the fluent competence which would help to break the negative cycle of inadequate English language use and poor academic performance" (Grocott's Mail, 1 August 1986). And yet this was achieved up until thirty years ago "with laudable success" (Maneli 1985:3).

Maneli underlines the seriousness of the problems facing Black education: "Since we are fully aware of the fact that our children hear English and dabble with it for a few hours a month only in class, CANNOT WRITE IT CORRECTLY at all levels as part of schoolwork; cannot hope to earn their bread and butter with it in this country or abroad; use Xhosa or another ethnic language at home and among themselves, during class lessons with the teachers; listen to Xhosa over the radio and TV2; the majority do shopping in Xhosa in townships and homelands – are we surprised at the alarming rate of failure . . ." (1985:4).

Maneli also exposes the dire problem which teachers face in black schools; the fact that the masses of disheartened pupils are convinced of the futility of all learning at school. School pupils are rebellious of the present education system and do not see a future for themselves in a technologically advanced age. These pupils, "thousands of them, have become so bored with exasperating criss-crosses of the red ballpoint pen . . . the destructive letter F after 10 months in the drab classroom . . . the painful ordeal of sitting in the desk (literally sitting) for over four hours [*sic*] each day LISTENING . . .the back-breaking task of having to 'read' textbooks 'on your own' to be able to do homework . . . when what is read cannot be comprehended" (Maneli 1985:4). It is little wonder that the future is so bleak for these pupils and the helpless plight of the teachers at these schools is evident when Maneli poses the question – "If they do not pass with comprehension, master vital subjects like Science, Maths, Biology, owing to their poor READING ability (assuming we agree that ORAL interaction in class in English is grossly lacking, and therefore pupils cannot be inspired to read 'on their own' with understanding; and the basis of success in content subjects is READING AND WRITING WITH UNDER-

STANDING), how will they fit in the world of computers/Marine Biology/Transplant Surgery/Nuclear Testing, to name a few?" (1985:5). The level of achievement of school pupils is deteriorating every year so that what Maneli says of them is equally applicable to the black students entering the University – ". . . in 1985, we admit that English has deteriorated in all respects to such an extent as to cause despair" (1985:2).

In order to correct this course of events the answer would appear to lie in promoting student motivation. Learning English requires considerable motivation on the part of the student. H.D. Brown asks "how can a language teacher provide extrinsic motivation where intrinsic motivation is lacking?" Research by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Spolsky (1969) reveals that when a student wanted to integrate himself with the culture of a second language group, to identify with and become part of that society this integrative motivation achieved greater success in successful language learning. This is substantiated by work done by Wilkins (1982:38) which has disclosed that "learners who are interested in the language and culture for its own sake and who are potentially sympathetic to the values of a different society [are] . . . the more successful language learners" as opposed to those "who are learning a language for some specific purpose, perhaps because it is going to be useful to them in some way". It would appear from Meerkotter's (1985:92) research that "English has risen as a trans-cultural force in South Africa", therefore the language and culture must be promoted if we are to eradicate the present deadlock at schools and universities. It is indeed Maneli's (1985:8) contention that "We need to adapt our whole outlook to the place of English in our lives as Black people and only then shall we be inspired . . ." Meerkotter (1985:93) believes that "South Africa is moving towards monolingualism in the sense of having a particular language as first language. This could also allow for a situation in which certain regional languages emerge as 'second' official languages". Perhaps if this trend accelerates spoken English will really become the *lingua franca* of South Africa. It is the contention of Maneli that "We need to restore English as the spoken language at school . . ." (1985:8).

It seems then that a greater desire to rectify the previous limitations of the schooling system and to try to communicate through English all the time would create stronger motivation and would ensure effective learning. This would correlate with Van der Walt's view that language "must be seen as interpersonal communication, used for a whole range of purposes and in a wide variety of situations" (1984:21). In the case of weakly-motivated students the benefits of language learning must be kept to the fore and Wilkins advocates "a strong element of play, humour and entertainment" (1982:54). Additionally if students lack motivation this can in some instances be attributed to their attitudes. Students who have rigid, ethnocentric and authoritarian views are "less successful in language learning" according to Wilkins (1982:53). Wilkins also asserts that "the attitudes of children are almost always the attitudes of their parents also, so . . . parents do much to determine the lack of success of their children in learning a foreign language". This problem can perhaps be averted if languages are taught 'in a rich cultural context'.

It is possible to infer from the data available that many students believe they understand enough English to 'get by'. Wilkins (1982:38) writing about language acquisition says that students ". . . tend to learn a second language to the level that is necessary for them to meet whatever communication needs they can themselves identify". But as Kroes (1984:8) concludes: "'Knowing' a language (competence?) involves more than the ability to recognise or to compose correct utterances: it includes the ability to use such utterances appropriately in acts of communication, within the context of longer discourse. In other words: communicative competence". It is also Van der Walt's conviction that while "a student may know the grammar and vocabulary of a language and yet still be unable to begin and end a telephone conversation appropriately, or be unable to excuse himself from other people's company, or he may not know how to make sure his listeners understand that he is uncertain about something" (1984:21). The key concept in such communicative activities is thus 'getting the message across'. It is therefore essential that these Practical English students realise "the trend in linguistic description is towards communicative functionalism" (Kroes 1984:8).

The recent changes to the syllabus at black schools from the formal grammar and "the old-fashioned approaches' of 50 years ago" (Maneli

1985:4) to a communicative approach has required a significant re-adjustment on the part of teachers. Rita Ribbens (1984:45) refers to this change in the syllabus: "In the traditional approach the teacher becomes more of a manager, or director who has to stimulate interaction and therefore develop materials to suit the needs of his pupils". Traditional language teaching syllabuses were structurally organised (Van der Walt 1984:20) but this often resulted in what Newman (1979) calls the 'structurally competent" student. This would be the student "who knows his grammar, but who is unable to perform a simple communicative task and who cannot communicate with a native speaker of the language" (Van der Walt 1984:20). This is corroborated by Johnson (1982) who speaks of the phenomenon of the "structurally competent but communicatively incompetent student".

The amount of time Practical English students spent reading in English per day during student unrest highlights the fact that students on the whole have highly unrealistic time commitments to actual language study. Wilkins (1982:31-2) claims that "one year in the classroom provides the equivalent of from one to three weeks' contact in a language-acquisition situation. If it takes from three to four years for a child to learn his mother-tongue to a reasonable degree of proficiency, we can work out for ourselves the astronomical length of time it would take for language learning to reach the same level if it was based on the same kind of largely random exposure to language". It is Wilkins' firm belief that "it is very rare for an individual to develop as comprehensive a knowledge of a foreign language as the native speaker" (1982:25). And yet ". . . adequate comprehension is the doorway to good judgement . . ." (Lennox-Short 1970:135).

The time factor in learning a language or any other subject through the medium of English affects lecturing staff as well. Proctor and Verschoor's tentative conclusions were that "on the whole, it would seem that many of these students suffer from an impoverished background in and experience of English language and literature. The extensive reading and study of English, as well as the love of the language and literature that prospective students of English might reasonably be expected to have cultivated before they arrive at university has not been the lot of the majority of Black students. Consequently a great deal of lost time has to be made up at university, and the task of the lecturer is made correspondingly more difficult, in spite of the generally favourable attitude towards the subject on the part of the student" (1978:465). If the academic year has been disrupted by class disturbances, lecturers find themselves in a situation where they have to cover the syllabus but have an inadequate fixed amount of time in which to reach their objectives. In preparing students for end-of-year examinations, the lecturer has unrealistic requirements imposed upon both him and the student and can "only effect some kind of compromise between what he is expected to achieve, what he would like to achieve and what conditions permit him to achieve" (Wilkins 1974:44).

The lecturer has a key role to play in developing student confidence, which in turn will encourage perseverance with the communicative approach to English by students. To be avoided at all costs is ". . . hostility towards the teacher" and lecturers should have the skill and personality to create "the conditions for learning" (Wilkins 1982:53). Considerable methodological innovation will also be meaningless if the lecturer does not have the ability to "put it across": modern communicative methods "require more careful preparation and a greater display of pedagogic skills than more conventional methods" (Wilkins 1982:55). Lecturers also need to be sensitive to student attitudes and "adopt an intuitive flexibility that so often distinguishes the good teacher" (*ibid*).

Although McLarty's research was not addressed to teachers at tertiary level, what he says about secondary teachers is largely applicable to lecturing staff engaged in teaching predominantly black university students. McLarty (1985:39-40) stresses that all teachers (including content subject teachers) should emphasise the importance of reading and realise that good listening and good reading go together. The process of learning whereby students become less and less dependent on the lecturer cannot take place without students having developed reading skills. Proctor and Verschoor's 'suspicion', "that students . . . have done very little reading of English apart from the few books prescribed for Junior and Senior Certificate . . ." (1978:460), was confirmed when they found that "more than half of the two groups tested had read fewer than 10 works of fiction in four years prior to leaving school . . ." (1978:462). This supports McLarty's contention that all teachers should "'devil's advocate' the use of textbooks" for reading as opposed to "the reading of extra sources such as newspapers" (1985:40). And Ribben (1984:55) agrees that "set work can be made communicative by the unimaginative teacher, though all genres do not lend themselves equally well to this". Based on the premise that every teacher is a reading teacher, McLarty (1985:40) suggests that "skills are effectively taught by 'reciprocal' teaching . . . because where content material is genuinely difficult, as it may be in poems, complex explanations of physics, and uncomfortable history (that is, contrary to the commonly accepted version), the high school child needs to be assisted to read it himself". This is vitally important for poor readers of English as they "often do not notice when a section of text makes no sense, and do not look back for help to try and find where they lost the trail. It is almost as though they do not expect it to make sense anyway (McLarty 1985:42). Amongst such weak readers of content material there is often "a return to anxious word by word decoding instead of breaking free to guess and test" (McLarty 1985:43).

If lecturers need to promote the communicative approach by adequate exposure to English through the reading of textbooks, their task is also to encourage fluent oral expression. Of course, as Babst (1984:20) says, "where fluency is the primary objective, students can be expected to make more errors in the second language". This is consistent with Adendorff, Chick and Seneque's findings that student concern is for "increasing fluency in . . . use of English rather than a concern with learning formal grammar and improving pronunciation" (1985:73), and this they argue requires a "move away from a 'deficit' view of these learners, necessitating the teaching of formal grammar . . . to a programme concerned with developing confidence and encouraging risk-taking behaviour . . ." (1985:73). It is essential that lecturers reassure students that making mistakes is an inevitable and a necessary part of learning a language. As Babst (1984:20) explains: "Unlike the exponents of behaviouristically based approaches who try to avoid incorrect responses at all costs, audio-linguists take a more forgiving view of errors" and that "error correction is a useful tool, but it should never be overemphasised". Van der Walt (1984:26) believes that "fluency work involves free communication. The student is evaluated at the communicative task level; he is assessed whether he can communicate successfully, whether he can produce and respond to a message, even though he makes mistakes. During this activity the teacher should refrain from making linguistic corrections". It is evident from the Practical English students' comments that they greatly fear the risk of exposing themselves as communicatively incompetent in the presence of their lecturer and fellow students. It is important to remember that "no language skill is so difficult to assess with precision as speaking ability" (Harris 1969:81). If students are encouraged to develop their spoken English this has a spin-off in that it could also improve their written English because spoken English "is more easily transferred to the written medium than the converse" (Wilkins 1982:62). The difficulties students experience in speaking the language are typical according to Wilkins of "learners taught by largely traditional writingbased methods" (ibid).

Lectures need also to bear in mind "contextualization cues": verbal and non-verbal behaviour signalled by their students. They need to be aware of the politeness strategies identified by Scollon and Scollon (1982), where, on the one hand a student may be voluble (which would suggest a willingness to negotiate his world view with others) and on the other hand a student may be taciturn (which would suggest deference politeness and a disinclination to negotiate his world view with others). This connection between "solidarity and deference politeness strategies with volubility and taciturnity" (Adendorff, Chick & Seneque 1985:48) is intimately connected with the level of risk-taking by successful language learners. "In other words, successful learners are those who are prepared to take the risk of being wrong publicly, with its attendant risk of face loss. Since those who are voluble expose themselves to this danger more than those who are taciturn, it would appear that there are advantages in encouraging solidarity styles of interaction in situations where language learning is to be encouraged" (ibid). This strategy would be particularly useful in tutorials where lecturers often have great difficulty with student passivity in eliciting any response to questions.

Extensive use of self-access materials and media such as provided by the Language Laboratory and CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction) are essential to assist students.

These materials enable students to devote time to catching up on work missed during boycotts and to filling in gaps in their general knowledge. This is suggested in an attempt to remedy what Proctor and Verschoor describe as "two of the basic and at times daunting difficulties encountered in giving instruction and delivering lectures . . . are the serious lack of the African student's 'background' knowledge of a literary, historical and social nature, and his general ignorance about even minor aspects of cultures, religious and social mores other than his own" (1979:459).

### Conclusion

Throughout this paper the underlying assumption has been that students' lack of exposure to English during periods of unrest hampers their progress when they return to lectures.

It is my contention that if student disturbances are only of a few days' duration, or, if they occur intermittently (spread over a few weeks) their effect is not so devastating on the year's academic programme because the momentum of lecturing is maintained. Academic performance is not disrupted significantly when there is regular staff/student contact. However, when disturbances are protracted and students are away from lectures for a considerable number of days in succession, communication between staff and students is definitely affected and students' proficiency in English is appreciably lowered.

Furthermore, lecturer support for students to try and overcome the difficulties caused by being taught through the medium of English is vital. In addition to taking into account the generally limited exposure students have to English during stayaways, lecturers' attitudes are crucial at such times in helping students re-adjust to a full lecturing programme. There is a distinct need to settle students' unease and in a nurturing way to get them back into the academic swing of things. This ability to bolster student confidence and to help students bridge the transition during the critical readjustment period until lecture attendance has stabilised and returned to normal pays dividends for lecturers. It hastens the re-establishment of staff/student communication. Likewise I contend that it aids in positive feedback from students. In order to support this viewpoint I quote from a students' comment: ". . . I appreciate the lecturer's to be nice and considerate with us, more especially in my Practical English (as a whole). I thank you for being so helpful and encourageous". [i.e. encouraging]

There may well be other effects of student unrest outside the scope of this paper which could be researched.

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# New Publications ... Nuwe Publikasies

## Reviews

**C.J. Brumfit and R.A. Carter (eds)**

*Literature and Language Teaching*. London: Oxford University Press, 1986. (Paperback, 289pp)

Despite the multitude of recent publications investigating and propagating innovative and supposedly effective means of second language teaching, it is noteworthy that most authors have either ignored or shown scant interest in the role of literature teaching in this regard. As the editors confirm in their introduction:

> *Literature teaching is by no means secure in many educational systems, and its role as an ally of language is not infrequently disputed.*

For this reason it is heartening to find a book entirely focused on the interaction between language, literature and education. Furthermore, it boasts contributions from many respected language teachers, such as Michael Long, Christopher Candlin, H.G. Widdowson, William Littlewood and Michael Short amongst others. Although, as the editors explain in the preface, they do not pretend to offer a comprehensive or synoptic account of the relationship between literature and language teaching, the many contributors, offering different viewpoints, have presented and discussed a large variety of ways in which language and literature study can be integrated.

The book is divided into four parts. The introduction addresses a number of fundamental issues such as the exact nature of 'literary language', literature as discourse and the nature of literature syllabuses. The editors reject the term 'literary language' and the conclusions they draw about the type of language used in literature strengthens their case in favour of a more integrated teaching approach. In support of their view, they quote Widdowson:

> *. . . with literary discourse the actual procedures for making sense are much more in evidence. You've got to employ interpretative procedures in a way which isn't required of you in the normal reading process. If you want to develop these procedural abilities to make sense of discourse, then literature has a place . . .*

Their argument is best summarized as follows:

> *. . . a literary text is authentic text, real language in context, to which we can respond directly. It offers a context in which exploration and discussion of content . . . leads on naturally to examination of language.*

The second part of the book contains eight articles on different pedagogic levels. These include Michael Long's discussion of the values of teaching literature, in which he ascribes the relative neglect of the teaching of English literature to non-native speakers, to a structural approach to language teaching. He suggests procedures which would lead to a better understanding of literary text while promoting language proficiency. He argues in favour of a 'group dynamics' approach and distinguishes between direct input by the teacher and learner-centered activities. Graham Trengove discusses the need for an awareness of varieties of English in use as crucial to an adequate teaching of literature in a foreign language, believing that literature study should enhance awareness of language functions. Graham Nash considers the use of paraphrase as a means of appreciating literary texts, while Short and Candlin focus on the kind of study skills needed by both teachers and students to effect an integration of language and literary study. Ron Carter investigates the inter-dependence of language and literature study, while recognizing the distinctiveness of each. Kachru examines the appropriateness of using English texts by non-native users in the language classroom and Guy Cook distinguishes between the use of texts and extracts, considering in particular the limitations of the latter.

Part Three, entitled "Literature in Education", contains seven articles. Burke and Brumfit attempt to defend literature teaching by posing the questions: "Is literature language? Or is language literature?' Littlewood's paper tries to relate the various demands which literary texts make on readers to the needs of foreign language learners, and considers the implications thereof for the selection of texts and methods. Brumfit attempts to define the relationship between general reading ability in a foreign language and literary response. These three papers are concerned with general principles, while the other four in this section focus on specific issues. Sandra McKay illustrates ways in which a literary text may be used or misused in order to achieve 'aesthetic response'. Boyle looks critically at testing language and identifies the problem that the things we most strongly wish to teach in literature classes are not amenable to the kinds of testing procedures traditional in foreign language work. In considering the relationship between simplified and unsimplified texts, Monica Vincent suggests in her paper that the use of linguistically simpler texts need not make the process of reading easier. The last paper in this section, by the Kenyan novelist Ngugi, addresses the cultural implications of the study of literature, which he sketches in a negative light.

The final section of the book, which contains five papers, looks at the issue of fluent versus accurate reading with specific reference to East Africa (papers by Brumfit and Pettit), as well as to British education. Other issues raised in this section are: reading a few works in detail as opposed to vast amounts of reading at a more superficial level; reading speed and the design of a literature curriculum. A sample examination paper is also provided.

It is impossible to do credit to the wide range of views and the vast ground covered in this volume, in a review of this nature. It is fair to say that the reader is offered a series of exciting and thought-provoking articles so arranged as to present a progression of general principles as well as practical problems and activities. As such, it is a very useful composite of theory and ideas, making an outstanding contribution to an area of applied linguistics which is of increasing interest and concern to language teachers. I heartily recommend it.

**J.J. Swartz**

**Winifred Crombie**

*Discourse and Language Learning: A Relational Approach to Syllabus Design.* Oxford: O.U.P., 1985 (130pp.)

*Process and Relation in Discourse and Language Learning.* Oxford: O.U.P., 1985 (150pp.)

The two books are complementary volumes. The first deals with practical aspects of syllabus design, while the second provides the theoretical basis for the suggestions postulated in the first. For the purposes of this discussion, I shall deal with each volume in turn, with references being made to the companion volume wherever it seems necessary.

The first volume details the approach outlined in her entry for the 1980 English Language Competition run by the English-Speaking Union. It arises from the firm criticisms that she has of the direction "communicative" syllabus design has taken. South African course designers or those concerned with syllabus design and even curriculum development would do well to consider what she has to say. She points to the tendency among syllabus designers to elevate function at the expense of structure; to design syllabuses for specific purposes instead of general purposes; to enter into discussions on aspects which they do not properly understand; and to introduce parameters which are unrealistic or about which research has little to offer in the way of guidance.

She believes:

"1 that structure and function are equally important;

2 that discussions about syllabus design should begin with a consideration of the principles involved in designing general syllabuses rather than with a consideration of needs specification for learners who may have specific communicative objectives;

3 that syllabus designers must necessarily restrict themselves to categories which are finite, systematizable, and at least reasonably well understood;

4 that syllabus designers should take as their starting point and organizational principle those aspects of discourse construction and comprehension which all learners, whatever their cultural and language background have in common" (p. x).

She believes that the notional approach has not provided a genuine alternative to structural syllabuses. She strongly defends the "good" structural syllabus, pointing out that course materials often draw attention to both meaning and discourse value since they are cyclic rather than linear. They are not, then inherently insensitive to meaning. Much of this argument aims to refute the allegations of Wilkins (1976) and other proponents of the notional-functional approach. She concludes that the "main difference between a structural syllabus and a notional-functional syllabus is that, in the latter case, categories of communicative function are added" (p.13). She is rather less charitable about functional-notional syllabuses than she is about structural syllabuses, not allowing in this case that teaching materials and procedures might compensate for discrete-item inventory. She argues firmly that since units of value do not have value in isolation, the course writer's task becomes impossible. He would be likely to encourage the idea that "meaning is more or less fixed – that discourse value is a property of a particular grammatical expression rather than of the relationship between units of language and the linguistic and non-linguistic context in which they occur" (p.14). In her view this could actually hinder communicative competence. Objectives have to be clearly stated. For this reason, she has as many misgivings about an approach which comprises a series of activities (however interesting or stimulating) as she has about a course comprising discrete items and units. South African course designers might do well to give serious consideration to this view.

At the heart of her approach is the view that it is the relationships which underlie the construction of coherent discourse which should provide the conceptual framework of a syllabus. Structure and lexis would be introduced within this framework as learning proceeds. Designers must be concerned with a dynamic view of language as a meaning-creating system and hence adopt an approach which "takes an adequate account of language as coherent discourse" (p.8). A relational approach would give centrality to binary values. These in turn may be divided into two types: interactional values and general discoursal values. Interactional values refers to "functional components of a conversational discourse and generally relates to the interaction between the conversational contributions of different speakers" (p.4) e.g. Elicitation – Reply. General discoursal values are those which may occur in any type of discourse, e.g. Reason – Result. She convincingly illustrates her view that an approach using only unitary values is restrictive. For instance, "I suggest you do that exercise again" might be wrongly interpreted as a suggestion instead of a command (p.7). Values are established through relationship between units of language within a discourse, as well as by explicit signalling. For her, "the ultimate aim is that the learner should reach a degree of competence at which he can not only recognize and use value signals, but also recognize where and when they need not be introduced and where and when they must not be" (p.6).

Chapter 2 deals with general semantic relations; Chapter 3 with interactive semantic relations while Chapter 4 involves a careful consideration of discourse relations and macro-patterning. Throughout she demonstrates that a discourse-centred approach is necessarily an integrated one. A consideration of general semantic relations, for instance, must also involve a consideration of reference, substitution and ellipsis. In Chapter 5, Winifred Crombie points to the fact that there are many ways to design a relational syllabus. It merely requires that every aspect of the system under consideration be given due attention. Her suggestions as to what a course book might be like are terrifyingly precise in their analysis of the individual core units, and their role in supplementing relational frames (e.g. Reason-Result) and relational cues (e.g. because). The important role of prior concentration on structural and semantic units is also suggested as a means of ensuring that these structures can be used as naturally as possible in creating and comprehending coherent discourse.

"This would lead to a situation in which homogeneous relational inventories were two-tiered (with primary core units feeding extension and integration core unit), and co-operative relational inventories were four-tiered (with structurally labelled units feeding semantically labelled units feeding primary core units), and primary core units feeding extension and integration core units." (p. 87).

In Chapter 6, she offers practical suggestions about ways in which semantic relations and discourse planning could be incorporated into classroom practice to develop reading, writing and listening skills. Many would find this the best part of the book. She makes the useful points that learners often have to deal with imperfect material (e.g. lectures!) and that they usually fail to recognize that signals or cues are sometimes used to deliberately mislead. Course writers would do well to include training in this regard.

This is an exciting and challenging work, which draws on various approaches to discourse analysis showing how they are applicable to language teachers. It makes heavy demands on the reader who is not well-versed in discourse analysis. However, once the specialist terms have been mastered (the companion volume would be very helpful in this respect), the uninitiated reader will at least have an awareness of the inherent dangers in approaches which do not take account of the interaction between sentence and context, if he cannot fully appreciate the six advantages of a relational approach provided. Those who are concerned with analytical language study, or are syllabus designers should find this work of great interest.

The second volume is best used, as it was intended, as a companion to the first. She believes that pedagogic proposals must arise out of and relate to sound and clearly explained theory. This book, then, is a bold invitation to judge the pedagogic proposals in **Discourse and language learning: a relational approach to syllabus design** in the light of the descriptive account provided.

Winifred Crombie has two main concerns in writing this book:

> *My first aim has been to investigate in a preliminary way, the direction in which an operational approach to language study might lead. My second aim has been to attempt to provide language teachers with an account of semantic relations which might form the basis of a new approach to syllabus design. (viii)*

Its value, however, as a contribution to theoretical description is somewhat reduced because it is so particularly tied to its companion volume. Nevertheless, she has presented a valuable preliminary investigation. The field of relations and relational coding is characterized by interesting exploration. This represents the first coherent and consistent description. Here, for instance, she presents a framework which links ethnomethodological conversation analysis, pragmatics and discourse analysis. Not only the relationships between these research areas are highlighted, but their direct bearing on text grammar is explicitly explored. Her reasons for an operational approach to language in the companion volume become clear. Throughout she draws on authorities in the field.

The book is divided into two parts. Part One (Semantic relations between propositions) is concerned with those operations (or relations) which underlie discoursal coherence, and the way in which they may be signalled and coded in English. Part Two (Semantic relations within the propositions) is concerned with case grammar, as well as the ways in which intra-propositional relational coding is done in English.

Chapter One, which precedes Part One, acts as a brief overview, pointing to the seminal work of Austin (1962) and Searle (1971) with regard to "unitary values", and clearly establishing the inescapable link with a specific context of situation. She provides definitions of terms such as "binary", "anaphoric", "deixis" and the way in which discoursal relationships are identified. In doing so, she acknowledges the major contributions made to the field by Grice (1975) and Winter (1977). The discussion is complex and often elliptical, which seriously limits its value for most teachers.

In Part One, Chapter Two, Section A groups semantic relations into 9 categories, giving them rather more complex and fuller treatment than afforded them in the companion volume (Temporal, Matching, Cause-Effect, Truth and Validity, Alternation, Bonding, Paraphrase, Amplification and Setting/Conduct). The descriptions provided are very clear. In addition, graphic illustrations are provided of the way in which semantic relations interact in discourse. Two discourse extracts – one literary, the other technical – are most usefully analyzed. First, the anaphoric references are identified, and second, the semantic relations. Section B is concerned with interactive semantic relations, while Section C is concerned with interactive semantic relations and general semantic relations in conversational discourse. Chapter Three deals with semantic relations and intonational disambiguation: the important role of intonation in creating meaning. Closely linked, Chapter Four explores lexico-syntactic signalling and then leads into an examination of textual cohesion and lexical and syntactic coding. Part Two focuses on intra-propositional relational encoding in English and has a particularly useful treatment of the predicate.

As is the case with the other volume, a bibliography is provided. An index would have been valuable, especially for those unfamiliar with the specialist terms.

The two volumes represent a valuable contribution. They will undoubtedly receive wide attention. It is to be hoped that we will soon have the benefit of further research and more practical guidance in this area. At present, the books address the adult situation only. South Africans would welcome ways of increasing the communicative competence of black high school pupils, in particular, so that they are better able to meet the demands of the job market.

E Ridge

# Publishers' announcements about new publications on language teaching and research

**New Edward Arnold Publications**

**Social psychology and second language learning**
The role of attitudes and motivation

**R.C. Gardner**

**The social psychology of language 4**

This new book takes bilingual or second language speakers as its subject, and focuses on the social psychological processes involved in selecting, learning and using a second language. Language is a major feature in an individual's social identification of himself; and learning another language involves a re-evaluation of that self-image. The development and use of a language implies socialization and identification with a cultural group. The particular way in which an individual speaks (intonation, accent, vocabulary, style, for example) not only serves a direct communicative function; it serves also to signal to others the speaker's background and his image of himself. Professor Gardner concentrates on the effects of social psychological variables, primarily as they relate to attitudes and motivation, on the individual learner's acquisition of a second language, and the effects of this acquisition in turn on such attitudes and motivation. The emphasis is on empirical research as opposed to philosophical or pedagogical matters. The book concludes that, just as first language acquisition has a profound effect on the social nature of the individual, so too does second language learning; and the final section considers the social psychological nature of the bilingual speaker. (224pp.)

**Intergroup communication**

**William B. Gudykunst, Editor**

**The social psychology of language 5**

The social scientific study of communication has hitherto largely focused on communication between individuals. This book concentrates on the important and interesting topic of how membership of a group–racial, ethnic, social or sexual, for example–affects communication with members of another group. The chapters are arranged to begin with the most general treatments and to end with the most specific, with an introductory chapter outlining the field, and a final chapter integrating the contents of the book. In addition to presenting an original contribution to a particular aspect of intergroup communication, each chapter presents a concise and up to date survey of research and theory. (224pp.)

**Current issues in teaching English as a second language to adults**

**Sandra Nicholls and Elizabeth Hoadley-Maidment, Editors**

*Current issues in teaching ESL to adults* is for teachers who already have some practical knowledge of the field but who wish to inform themselves about some of the broader discussions and developments that are taking place. It is a collection of articles by experienced teachers, advisers and organisers of ESL and provides both a historical overview and a consideration of the contemporary issues which are influencing and shaping the field.

*Current issues in teaching ESL to adults* is divided into five sections:

1 An Overview
2 Curricula and organisational issues
3 Methodological and classroom issues
4 Accreditation and assessment issues
5 Teacher recruitment and training issues

(128pp.)

# EDITOR'S ANNOUNCEMENT

## *Language training in industry: a special issue*

*The need for effective language communication in industry in a multilingual country like South Africa has long been recognised.*

*Addressing this issue, the Institute for Language Teaching of the University of Stellenbosch carried out a comprehensive study of the need for effective language training in industry. The researchers, Dr D.S. Gxilishe and Prof. D.H. van der Vyver, have published their results in a report entitled: LANGUAGE TRAINING IN INDUSTRY. This report, approved by the HSRC and released for publication, will be published as a special issue of PER LINGUAM for the next edition.*

*The main aim of the study is to bring the most important research findings to the attention of specific institutions as well as to the attention of the general public so that industrial language teaching, communication, productivity and human relations in South African industry can be improved.*

*The report comprises surveys of*

- *the literarure on the effects of language training on labour relations and productivity in industry*
- *the opinions of personnel managers*
- *interviews held with personnel management*
- *interviews held with unskilled/semi-skilled Black workers*
- *the need for and validity of language courses in industry at worker-foreman level.*

*The findings of the report are significant for all local and foreign corporations who employ Blacks in Southern Africa.*

# Conferences, courses and meetings Konferensies, kursusse en byeenkomste

1987

**Sixth European Symposium on Languages for Special Purposes.**
(Theme: General LSP Reading for Professional Purposes)

Place: Vaasa, Finland
Date: 3–7 August
Contact: Christen Laurén,
Dept. of Modern Languages,
Raastuvankatu 31,
SF-65100 Vaasa,
Finland

**Fourteenth International Congress of Linguistics**

Place: Berlin, German Democratic Republic
Date: 10-15 August
Contact: Werner Bahner,
Akademie der Wissenschaften der DDR,
Otto-Nuschke-Strasse 22-23,
Postfach Linguistenkongress,
DDR-1086 Berlin,
German Democratic Republic.

**Eighth World Congress of the International Association of Applied Linguistics(AILA)**
(Theme: New Approaches to Applied Linguistics as an International Discipline)

Place: Sydney, Australia
Date: 16-21 August
Contact: Applied Linguistics Association of Australia,
University of Sydney,
Department of French Studies,
New South Wales 2006,
Sydney,
Australia.

**Conference on History of Language Sciences**

Place: Trier, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 24-27 August
Contact: H.-J. Niedesche,
ICH LS IV,
University of Trier,
Postfach 3825,
D-5500 Trier,
Federal Republic of Germany

**Fourteenth Annual International Systemics Workshop**

Place: Sydney, Australia
Date: 24-28 August
Contact: J.R. Martin,
Linguistics Department,
The University of Sydney,
Sydney,
N.S.W. 2006
Australia

**Twelfth Annual Conference of the Association for Teacher Education in Europe**
(Theme: Teacher Education and Training in Europe: Present Challenges and Future Strategies)

Place: Berlin, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 7-11 September
Contact: ATEE-Conference,
Free University,
Habelschwerdter Allee 45,
D-1000 Berlin 33,
Federal Republic of Germany

### Symposium of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) and the Swiss Inter-University Commission of Applied Linguistics (CILA)

(Theme: Changing the minority/majority status of a language in interaction)

Place: Neuchâtel, Switzerland
Date: 16-18 September
Contact: R. Jeaanneret,
Universiti de Neuchâtel,
Institut de linguistique,
Quai Robert-Comtesse 2,
CH-2000 Neuchâtel,
Switzerland

### Thirteenth annual Conference of the International Association for Language and Industry.

(Theme: The inpact of language in world economy)

Place: Paris, France
Date: 18-19 September
Contact: Mrs T. Schroeder,
Chambre Officielle Franco-Allemande de Commerce et d'Industrie,
18, Rue Balard,
F-75015 Paris,
France

### Symposium of the Computer Assisted Language Learning and Instruction Consortium (CALICO)

Place: Paris, France
Date: 18-20 September
Contact: CALICO ,
S. Vasquez,
3078 JKHB,
Brigham Young University,
Provo,
Utah 84602,
USA

### Twenty-third seminar of the International Association for cross-cultural communication (AIMAV)

(Theme: The relevance of a common intermediate language)

Place: Ghent,Belgium
Date: 28-30 September
Contact: AIMAV,
University of Ghent,
Faculty of Philosophy and Letters,
Blandijnberg 2,
B-9000 Ghent,
Belgium

### Annual Conference of the German Association for Applied Linguistics (GAL)

(Theme: Applied Linguistics and Computer)

Place: Heidelberg, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 1-3 October
Contact: Universität Heidelberg,

Grabenstrasse 1,
D-6900 Heidelberg,
Federal Republic of Germany

### Conference of the working-group "Creativity and Code" of the German Association of Semiotics

Place: Berlin, Federal Republic of Germany
Date: 5-8 October
Contact: E. Hess-Lüttich,
Free University,
Fachbereich Germanistik,
Habelschwerdter Allee 45,
D-1000 Berlin 33,
Federal Republic of Germany

### Twelfth Congress of Foreign Language Experts

(Theme: The Modern Languages Curriculum in the Context of Related Disciplines)

Place: Braunschweig
Date: 5-7 October
Contact: G. Zimmerman,
Technische Universität,
Bültenweg 74-75,
D-3300 Braunschweig,
Federal Republic of Germany

**Eleventh Conference on Applied Linguistics**
(Theme: Variation in second Language Acquisition)

Place: Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA
Date: 9-11 October
Contact: Susan Gass,
English Language Institute,
University of Michigan,
Ann Arbor,
Michigan 48109, USA.

**Twelfth Annual Boston University Conference on Language Development**

Place: Boston, Massachusetts, USA
Date: 23-25 October
Contact: Boston University,
603 Commonwealth Avenue,
Boston,
Massachusetts 02215,
USA

**Fourth International Conference on Basic Problems of Translation Science**

Place: Leipzig, German Democratic Republic
Time: 11-13 November
Contact: Dr. E. Fleischmann,
Karl Marx-Universität,
Sektion TAS,
Postfach 920,
DDR-7010 Leipzig,
German Democratic Republic

**International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning of the Japanese Association of Language Teachers (JALT)**

Place: Tokyo, Japan
Date: 21-23 November
Contact: JALT Central Office,
Kyoto English Center,
Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8F,
Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru,
Shimogyo-ku,
Kyoto 600,
Japan

**Conference of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)**

Place: Atlanta, Georgia, USA
Date: 18-25 November
Contact: ACTFL,
579 Broadway,
Hastings-on-Hudson,
New York 10706,
USA

**Conference of the National Council of the Teachers of English (NCTE)**

Place: Los Angeles, California, USA
Date: 20-25 November
Contact: NCTE,
1111 Keyon Rd,
Urbana,
Illinois 61801,
USA

**Second International Symposium of English Language Teaching Methodology**
(Theme: The Development of Writing Skills in English Language teaching)

Place: Jena, German Democratic Republic
Date: 2-4 December
Contact: W.H. Strauss,
Friedrich Schiller-Universität,
DDR-6900 Jena,
Goetheallee 1,
German Democratic Republic

**Annual Conference of the Modern Language Association (MLA) of America**

Place: San Francisco, California USA.
Date: 27-30 December
Contact: MLA 10 Astor Place,
New York City,
New York 10003 USA.

**Sources of Information:**

*FIPLV World News*, No 44 (10) May 1987
*HSRC Research Bulletin* Vol 17 (1) 1987

# Guidelines for contributors

1 The focus of the journal is on issues of language teaching, learning and acquisition, especially as related to communicative needs of multi-cultural, multi-lingual Southern Africa.

Authors are invited to submit contributions (only one original copy is required) on

- language acquisition and second or foreign language teaching and learning
- language courses for special or general purposes
- cross-cultural communication
- the effect of language teaching and learning on productivity and human relations
- technology in language teaching and learning
- innovative approaches to language teaching and learning, and
- training and in-service training programmes.

2 All contributions must be directed to

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PER LINGUAM
Institute for Language Teaching
University of Stellenbosch
7600 Stellenbosch
Republic of South Africa

3 Frequency of publication: once each semester.

4 Language of publication: English or Afrikaans.

5 Format of manuscripts for publication: Typewritten, double-spaced throughout, on one side of the paper, with two and a half centimetres of margin at the left. Foot-notes should be avoided and essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped at the end of the article. References for an article should not be interspersed with notes. A standard format (Harvard method) for complete references is to be used.

6 Authors' full names and complete mailing addresses should appear on the first page of each article.

7 When an article is published by a group of authors under the name of an organization, the name and address of each author should be provided.

8 In cases where the author's surname might not be readily recognizable (e.g. if the conventions of a non-English language cause the author's surname to precede the first name), surnames should be clearly marked through the use of italics, capitalization, etc.

9 The inclusion of an English abstract for each article is required.

10 The deadline for submitting articles for the first semester edition is the 30th of September of the previous year; articles for the issue of the second semester must be received before 31st of March of the previous year.

11 Articles should, as a rule, not exceed 20 pages of A4- format paper. Longer contributions might be considered for special issues of PER LINGUAM.

12 Evaluation of articles is done by at least two specialist referees.

13 Multiple submission: In the case of simultaneous submission, please indicate which other journal(s); if the article has been accepted for publication previously, please obtain editorial permission to reprint.

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15 Authors of articles receive one complimentary copy of the journal.

16 Offprints: Each author receives ten offprints free; any further copies can be ordered at R2,00 each.

17 Special requirements

17.1 A brief double-spaced biographical statement that includes the author's professional status, address, etc. must be provided.

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When you cite your own previous publications, reference must be made to them in the third person: not "as I said in my article on Suggestopedia", but "as L. Botha said in his article on Suggestopedia". Upon acceptance of your manuscript, the editorial staff will convert the third person citations to the first person.

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1 Die tydskrif fokus op taalonderrig, taalaanleer en taalverwerwing, veral met betrekking tot die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van 'n veelvolkige, veeltalige Suidelike Afrika.

Skrywers word genooi om bydraes te lewer (slegs een oorspronklike kopie word vereis) oor

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- interkulturele kommunikasie
- die uitwerking van taalonderrig en taalaanleer op produktiwiteit en menseverhoudinge
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## A Journal of Language Learning

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# PER LINGUAM

**Redaksie**

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# Editorial

The reader will find five articles by South African academics in this issue of PER LINGUAM.

Two of the authors report on research projects which were undertaken by the Institute for Language Teaching at Stellenbosch University, in co-operation with the Cape Town Teachers' College and the Denneoord College for Continued Training:

- N. Rousseau and M.S. Odendaal's contribution on designing an Afrikaans syllabus for the training of black primary school teachers in Transkei is based on a literature study as well as a needs analysis. The emphasis of this article falls on the factors and variables which affect the design of the syllabus. As the syllabus was designed for the Transkei Department of Education it can, for obvious reasons, not be published in PER LINGUAM. However, the report should be valuable for everyone interested in the problems and challenges attached to the design of second and third communicative language courses as well as intercultural communication in Southern Africa.
- M.S. Odendaal's description of a suggestopedic course for teaching English to Afrikaans-speaking college students and her analysis of pre- and post IQ tests is based on a comparison of work with experimental and control groups. If, as we assume, language and thought are inseparable, the implications of her findings are important for language teachers who aim specifically and systematically at improving the integration of language proficiency, thought processes and creative thinking. It is equally important for designing materials and planning instructional strategies.

The remaining three authors write on aspects of the communicative approach to the teaching of a second language:

- H. Ludolph Botha questions the value of the traditional methods of correction of errors in second language teaching. He asserts that the behaviouristic approach of correcting all errors is doing exactly what the teacher wants to avoid, viz the fossilization of errors. Referring to the Natural Approach and to Suggestopedia, both of which stress the importance of the acquisition of the language through the communicative approach and the avoidance of overt error correction, he makes a plea for new strategies to replace the otherwise time-consuming and futile exercise of error correction.
- R. Blunt maintains that the second language teacher will have to make a careful analysis of the speech acts the student will need to perform and understand in the target language. He groups the speech acts under two headings: illocutionary acts which involve merely the intention of the speaker and perlocutionary acts which involve both the intention of the speaker and the effect of the message on the listener. This article is a valuable contribution to the teaching of a second language by means of the communicative approach.
- D.S. Gxilishe has drawn up a Xhosa communicative test for senior second language pupils. This is an extract from his doctoral dissertation. Taking as guideline the aims of the Xhosa syllabus for the Senior Certificate examination of the Cape Education Department, he focuses on the two main objectives of the syllabus: to use Xhosa in everyday situations and to develop the listening and speaking skills of pupils. For those intending to construct a second language communicative test, the preparation of the test items, the content of the test, its administration as well as the analyses of the results are bound to be of particular interest.

D.H. van der Vyver

# A Xhosa communicative test for senior L2 pupils*

D. S. Gxilishe

The writer shows to what extent the aims of the Xhosa syllabus for the Senior Certificate examination (Higher and Standard Grade) under the Cape Education Department are met by constructing and administering an oral proficiency test in Xhosa. The writer takes into account the two main objectives of the syllabus: to use the communication means in every day situations and to develop the listening and speaking skills of the pupils. The emphasis of the test items is not on linguistic accuracy but on the pupil's ability to function effectively through language in particular settings and contexts. The validity, reliability and practicability of the test are discussed as well as the trial test and the administration.

Die skrywer wys in watter mate die doelstellings van die Xhosaleerplan vir die Senior Sertifikaat-eksamen (Hoër en Standaard Graad) van die Kaapse Onderwysdepartement bereik word deur die samestelling en toepassing van 'n vaardigheidstoets in mondelinge werk. Die skrywer neem die twee hoofdoelstellings van die leerplan in ag, nl. om die bedrewenheid om te kommunikeer in alledaagse situasies te gebruik en die luister- en mondelinge vermoë van die leerlinge te ontwikkel. Die klem van die toetsitems val nie op taalkundige akkuraatheid nie, maar op die vermoë van die leerlinge om in spesifieke situasies en omstandighede doeltreffend te kommunikeer. Die geldigheid, betroubaarheid en uitvoerbaarheid van die toets word bespreek asook die voorlopige toets en die administrasie daarvan.

### 1.1 Introduction

Effective communication between different racial and language groups depends on people's proficiency in the language or languages used as a means of communication.

Effective communication is especially necessary when one looks at the multilingual nature of South Africa. According to the 1980 census, although English and Afrikaans are the official languages, 24 languages are spoken in the country (*The Star* 27.7.1985:12). Of the African languages, Zulu is the most widely spoken, followed by Xhosa and the Sotho languages.

The heterogeneous nature of the country means that children learn more than one language at school. The national education policy and provincial educational ordinances stipulate that pupils attending schools which fall under provincial departments of education should be taught either in English or Afrikaans. In most instances, the language of instruction is taught as a mother tongue or first language (L1). The other official language (Afrikaans or English) is compulsory and is taught as a second language (L2). (Pupils capable of doing so, may take the other official language as a first language.)

*From: Gxilishe, D.S. 1987. *Oral proficiency in Xhosa as a second language*. University of Stellenbosch D.Litt. dissertation. Promoters: Prof. J.A. du Plessis (Department of African Languages) and Dr. J.J. Botha (Institute for Language Teaching).

There are situations in South Africa when an additional language, officially referred to as a third language (L3), is needed for communication purposes within a specific language group. At present German, Dutch, French and other modern European languages, African languages, as well as classical languages such as Latin and Greek, are taught.

In each province, the African language predominantly spoken by blacks in that region has been included as an additional language in the primary school curriculum. It is an elective subject in the secondary school up to Senior Certificate level.

Great progress has been made in promoting the teacning of African languages, to such an extent that syllabuses for a number of these languages have been devised, for example, in Pedi, Tswana, Zulu and Xhosa (Human Sciences Working Committee Report on Languages and Language Teaching 1981). Xhosa was first introduced as a Senior Certificate subject in white secondary schools in the Cape Province in 1966 (Endley 1983:1).

The term, third language (L3), is used by education departments to facilitate the choice of school subjects. It does not denote the order in which languages are learnt. White pupils who learn an African language take it as an additional language, or a third language. In this study, the teaching/learning of Xhosa will mean that it is done technically as a second language but as a third language within the definition of the provincial departments of education. The terms may also be used interchangeably for the learning of Xhosa.

The approach to language teaching has been revitalised by:

- different theories concerning the nature of language
- new theories concerning the control process of language acquisition
- innovative proposals for syllabus development and the design of instructional systems as well as
- the use of a variety of novel practices, techniques and procedures in the language classroom (Richards 1972:21).

The Xhosa language did not escape this revitalisation process. A break was made from the structurally orientated syllabus (which had been in existence since 1975), resulting in the adoption of a communicative syllabus in 1982 at schools under the Cape Department of Education.

### 1.2 Aim of the study

The study attempts to suggest an alternative approach in testing oral proficiency in Xhosa, related to the objectives of the syllabus for Senior Certificate:

- to use the communication means in everyday situations
- to develop the listening and speaking skills of the pupils in respect of various everyday themes (and their vocabulary) that occur in specific situations (1982:63).

An alternative Xhosa test which sets out to measure effectively the attainment of the above-mentioned objectives of the Departmental syllabus was constructed and administered.

### 2.1 Communicative language testing

The term test is applied to a measure (taken under specified conditions and within a specified time-limit) of knowledge and ability designed to yield information for a specific purpose, and intended to be applied to a specific group of people in such a way that the performance of a particular individual may be compared fairly with that of others in the group (Brumfit and Roberts 1983:122). To date it seems that no attempt has been made to construct a Xhosa language test at Senior Certificate level which may be used by teachers under the Cape Department of Education. It appears that teachers of Xhosa tend to devise their own classroom tests which are generally prepared, administered and scored by one teacher.

In this study an attempt to apply the theory of communicative language testing is discussed. In the discussion the following steps in the process of constructing a Xhosa test, appropriate for the communicative Xhosa syllabus, will be explained:

- planning the test
- preparing the test items and directions
- submitting the test to review and revising on the basis of review
- pretesting the material and analysing the results
- assembling the final form of the test
- reproducing the test and
- test constraints.

Teachers frequently ask how to test communicatively. Porter (1983:199) points out that the proposals for communicative testing (at this stage) contribute only a set of hypotheses which need empirical validation. It is obvious that further research is required, especially for testing in general courses.

### 2.2 Xhosa oral achievement

In devising an educational test of oral achievement in Xhosa at Senior Certificate level under the Cape Department of Education, research procedure included interviews with:

- officials of the Cape Department of Education concerned with the teaching of languages
- practising teachers in Xhosa under the Cape Department of Education and
- language testing researchers.

The literature study that was done and information gained from the interviews were analysed and the information was used in developing the test.

The Director of the Cape Department of Education granted permission for research to be conducted in schools under his jurisdiction. Schools which offered Xhosa at Senior Certificate level were used. Necessary arrangements were made beforehand and the specific schools were notified ahead of time. The language testing research focused on the learner's oral performance in Xhosa. The premise was that to know a language is primarily/mainly to display a competence in using its skills (Spolsky 1978). In this test, items were developed in such a manner that the testee would be able to display his proficiency in manipulating oral skills.

Since this test assesses what has been achieved or learnt from what was taught in a particular course or a series of courses it is by definition an achievement test (Cohen 1980:9). The type of the syllabus on which the test is based is communicative. Consequently, the test is a communicative/functional test. The term 'functional' was selected because functions, notions and situations were to be used as test items. In addition, the principles of testing were to be drawn from the notional-functional teaching approach. As has been discussed by Farhady (1983), the theory behind the notional-functional approach evolves from the anticipated communicative needs of the learner. The approach attempts to identify and teach the language activities that the learner is most likely to be faced with in real-life situations. In other words, the notional-functional approach shifts the instruction focus from the linguistic to the communicative needs of the learner.

The identification and classification of language functions can never be exhausted. One may also agree with Wilkins (1976) and Widdowson (1979) that the numerous functions to be tested may cause problems similar to those of discrete-point tests. However, regarding these problems, Farhady (1983:258) explains that there is an extremely important difference between the two types of seemingly similar problems. In the functional test, any single item involves an independent communicative behaviour regardless of the number and type of linguistic rules. No matter what the function, there is no need to investigate whether it does (or how much it does) contribute to the process of communication. This is not true with discrete-point test items because they involve discrete items with no specific reference to the actual or potential use of those items in real communication. A testing approach which is intended to follow the notional-functional approach should therefore include items which focus on assessing the testees' ability to handle the communicative functions of language, rather than their ability to use linguistic forms only. This does not imply that the linguistic accuracy of a sentence is de-emphasised. On the contrary, it is considered as important as any other component of behaviour.

As to the nature of the functional test, one may agree with Wilkins (1976) that it should basically involve integrated rather than isolated skills. Wilkins points out that a functional test should seek answers to such questions as the examinee's ability to perform certain functions in appropriate social environments. In developing a functional test, then, selection of the functions is of crucial importance.

## 2.3 Guidelines for constructing the test

### 2.3.1 Planning the test

The test had to be an integrated one in order to be functional. This meant that language in a test could not be regarded as a set of unrelated items. The items had to be integrated and tested in combination with one another.

Another implication of the above statement was that language learning is purposeful. The purpose had to be always communicative and what was to be tested was communicative ability and not formal knowledge.

Another guideline was the aspect of communicative language proficiency, which is an important aspect in communication. In this type of proficiency the focus is on eliciting social and interpersonal uses of language through spoken channels. Communication is regarded primarily as a form of social interaction in which emphasis is normally placed less on grammatical forms and literal meaning and more on the participants and their purpose in using language i.e. on the social meaning of utterances, for instance, explaining, expressing opinions and enquiring.

Authenticity was also important. This meant that testing undertaken had to be real-life interactive communicative operations. The test had to simulate real situations in order to provide a better understanding of what the ultimate tasks in language performance would be, so the test items had to be in a meaningful context. Although real contexts are illusory in a pedagogical setting, the examiner attempted to maintain a realistic setting when conducting the test.

The test had to have content validity. Content validity refers to the ability of a test to measure what has been taught and subsequently learnt by students. Language material used in the test was selected for its high frequency of use.
The test had to be valid, a test of what it claimed to test, Xhosa oral proficiency and not memory or interest for instance. It also had to be reliable, constructed in such a way as to yield consistent results. The test had to be practical as far as administration and scoring were concerned.

This test had to possess the characteristics of a communicative test. It had to assess language used for a purpose beyond itself. It had to relate to communicative circumstances and not merely create an opportunity for the learner to display his language so that it could be assessed. It also had to be conducted in such a way that an information gap was bridged between tester and pupil. It had to propose a language-using purpose which could be fulfilled by the communicative skill the learner had so far acquired.

The test was direct. It was conducted while the examiner faced the pupil and both were engaged in communicative dialogue.

### 2.3.2 Preparing the test items and directions

Test items used in the communicative test were selected from the Xhosa syllabus by means of frequency counts. The Xhosa syllabus prescribed by the Cape Department of Education consists of a comprehensive list of situations, functions and notions (See The Education Gazette 1982:67; 71-72; 76-77).

When one looks at the functions and notions prescribed in the syllabus, the problem which confronts one is appropriate selection. This problem was however solved by referring to an unpublished research study (Du Plessis 1982) conducted by the Department of African Languages at the University of Stellenbosch. In this study, an analysis was made of functions and notions prescribed for the Senior Certificate. The rate of frequency of the functions and notions was tested by means of a specific communicative text. This resulted in the following functions and notions:

**FUNCTIONS**

| **Very high frequency** | **High frequency** | **Very low frequency** |
|---|---|---|
| Agreeing – *Ukuvumelana* | Asking – *Ukubuza* | Advising – *Ukucebisa* |
| Certain – *Ukuqinisekisa* | Describing – *Ukuchaza* | |
| Satisfaction – *Ukonela* | Denying – *Ukulandula* | |
| Disappointment – *Udano* | | |
| Warning – *Isiyalo* | | |
| Wishing – *Iminqweno* | | |

**NOTIONS**

Length of time – *Ubude bexesha*
Frequency – *Ukuphindaphinda*
Quantity – *Ubuninzi*
Reflection – *Ukucinga*
Temporary – *Okwexeshana*
Material – *Umchako*
Inclusion – *Ubandakanyo*

Speed – *Isantya*
Change – *Inguqulelo*
Moisture – *Ubumanzi*
Contrast – *Ukwahlukisa*

When selecting functions and notions to be used as test items, all those with a very high frequency were automatically selected. The rest were drawn from the other two categories of functions (high frequency and very low frequency of use). The following functions and notions were selected as test items in constructing the test under discussion.

| **Functions** | **Notions** |
|---|---|
| Denying – *Ukulandula* | Length of time – *Ubude bexesha* |
| Certain – *Ukuqinisekisa* | Frequency – *Ukuphindaphinda* |
| Satisfaction – *Ukonela* | Quantity – *Ubuninzi* |
| Disappointment – *Udano* | Reflection – *Ukucinga* |
| Warning – *Isiyalo* | Speed – *Isantya* |
| Describing – *Ukuchaza* | Contrast – *Ukwahlukisa* |
| Agreement – *Ukuvumelana* | Temporary – *Okwexeshana* |
| Change – *Inguqulelo* | |

Three topics were chosen at random. These were sport, South Africa and newspapers.

### 2.3.3 Submitting the test to review and pretesting

A provisional test was constructed based on the guidelines discussed and comprising selected functions, notions and situations. Once the researcher was satisfied with his material, he submitted it to consultants. Changes were made to items based on the comments received.

The materials were then pretested. The items were tried out on two schools, with 7 pupils per school. This was administered to a number of pupils of the same kind as those for whom the test was being designed. Only those items which proved statistically satisfactory in the pretest were included in the final version of the test. Inclusion was determined by their suitable level of difficulty – neither too difficult nor too easy for the pupils being tested. Second, inclusion was determined by the items' ability to discriminate between those pupils who knew the material or had the skills or abilities being tested, and those who did not. The two schools, one Afrikaans medium and one English medium, were selected for three practical considerations: proximity, size and language medium. The test was conducted at Senior Certificate level. The trial test was administered individually to fourteen pupils. It was estimated that the testing period per pupil would be fifteen minutes but it proved to be twenty-five minutes. The order of the subtests was constant. All the tests were administered by the researcher.

In order to maximise uniformity and co-operation, the researcher explained to the testees why the test was being given and read a specific set of instructions. These were given in either English or Afrikaans, depending upon the first language of the pupill. (Only the English version is given in this article.)

For each section, the researcher read the stimulus sentence or question. A sentence or question was repeated if necessary.

The testees sat facing the tester at a table on which was placed a tape recorder. The pupil's response was recorded on tape and part of the assessment was made by the examiner at a later stage.

The trial test was subdivided into four sections:

- listening comprehension test
- understanding of selected functions within contexts
- understanding of selected notions in various contexts
- unstructured conversation based on specific situations.

### SECTION A

The examiner attempted to put the pupil at ease. He took the initiative and greeted the pupil. He asked a few questions in English or Afrikaans, e.g. name, address, home language and any further questions deemed necessary in order to build up the pupil's confidence so that he would respond naturally and unaffectedly. No assessment was made at this stage.

### SECTION B (Listening comprehension test)

**Instruction to the pupil**

I shall read you some sentences to which you must respond by doing something physical, or by agreeing or disagreeing, i.e. by saying "yes" or "no".

For example, if I say, "Jonga efestileni", you should respond by looking at the window. If I say, "Iiyunivesithi zininzi kule dolophu", you should say, "Hayi", because this is not true.

If I ask you, "Uyazibona na ezi ncwadi phezu kwetafile?", you should respond by saying, "Ewe", if you see books on the table.

**I shall start now**

1 **Command** *Vala amehlo.* (Close your eyes.)

2 **Question** *Le glasi iphezu kwetafile izele na ngamanzi?*
(Is the glass on the table full of water?)

3 **Statement** *Kufundisa amaxhego odwa kwesi sikolo.*
(Only grandfathers teach at this school.)

4 **Statement** *Inqununu yesi sikolo ngumfazi/yindoda.*
(The principal at this school is a woman/man.)

5 **Command** *Susa iphephandaba esitulweni, libeke etafileni.*
(Remove the newspaper from the chair, put it on the table.)

6 **Question** *Ndinxibe ihempe emnyama neqhina elibomvu?*
(Am I wearing a black shirt and a red tie?)

7 **Statement** *Namhlanje imvula iyanetha kuyabanda.*
(Today it is raining; it is cold.)

8 **Command** *Thabatha usiba oluluhlaza ubhale ephepheni igama, ifani, nebanga okulo.*
(Take a blue pen and write your name, surname and the standard you are in on the paper.)

9 **Question** *Yinyaniso le nto yokuba uhamba isikolo ukususela ngoMvulo kude kube yiCawa?*
(Is it true that you attend school from Monday to Sunday?)

10 **Question** *Ezi ncwadi ziphezu kwetafile zibhalwe ngumntu omnye?*
(Have the books on the table been written by one person?)

11 **Statement** *Kushushu kakhulu namhlanje abantu baza kudada emanzini.*
(It is very hot today and the people are going to swim in the pool.)

12 **Command** *Phakama uqokelele zonke iincwadi, wakugqiba zifake ebhokisini.*
(Stand up and put all the books into a pile; when you have finished put them in the box.)

(Commands: 4 Questions: 4 Statements: 4)

## SECTION C SERIES A (Functions)

**Instruction to the pupil**

I am going to ask you a few questions and you must answer me in Xhosa each time.

For example, I may ask "Uyathemba ukuba umhlobo wakho uza kufika?" (Do you hope your friend will arrive?) You may answer "Ewe (ndiyathemba)", if you hope that your friend will arrive.

**I shall start now**

1 **Ukuvumelana** (Agreement) *Uyahambisana nale nto yokubethwa kwabafundi esikolweni?*
(Do you agree that children should be beaten at school?)

2 **Ukuqinisekisa** (Ascertaining) *Yinyaniso le nto yokuba umdlalo weqakamba udlalwa ehlotyeni?*
(Is it true that cricket is played in summer?)

3 **Ukwanela** (Satisfaction) *Xa wanele kukusebenza ekhaya wenza ntoni?*
(What do you do, when you have finished your home duties?)

4 **Udano** (Disappointment) *Udaniswe yintoni kwimidlalo yesikolo/yombhoxo yehoki?*
(What has disappointed you in rugby/hockey?)

5 **Isiyalelo** (Warning) *Abantu abanxiba impahla eshushu ebusika balumkele ntoni?*
(What are people who wear warm clothes in winter afraid of?)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 6 | **Ukuchaza**<br>(Describing) | *Ufunda eziphi izifundo kwesi sikolo?*<br>(Which subjects do you learn in this school?) |
| 7 | **Ukuvumelana**<br>(Agreement) | *Wena ufunda kwibanga leshumi kulo nyaka, uyavuma?*<br>(You are in standard ten this year. Do you agree?) |
| 8 | **Ukuqinisekisa**<br>(Ascertaining) | *Uqiniseka ngantoni eluviweni ukuphela konyaka?*<br>(What are you sure of in the exams at the end of the year?) |
| 9 | **Udano**<br>(Disappointment) | *Uva into embi yintoni namhlanje?*<br>(What makes you feel bad today?) |
| 10 | **Isiyalelo**<br>(Warning) | *Xa uza kuphatha imali eninzi ulumkela ntoni?*<br>(What are you careful of when you carry a lot of money?) |
| 11 | **Ukuvumelana**<br>(Agreement) | *Uyavumelana nam ukuba esi sikolo sinabafundi abambalwa?*<br>(Do you agree with me that this school has few pupils?) |
| 12 | **Ukwanela**<br>(Satisfaction) | *Wanela yintoni ngexesha leKrismesi?*<br>(What do you like most about Christmas?) |

## SECTION C SERIES B (Notions)

**Instruction to the pupil**

I am again going to ask you a few questions and you must answer me in Xhosa.

For example, I may ask: "Nizifunda nini izifundo zesiNgesi?" (When do you study English?)

Your answer may be, "Yonke imihla." (Every day.)

I will read each question twice and you must respond immediately.

**I shall start now**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | **Ubude bexesha**<br>(Length of time) | *Uya iintsuku ezingaphi esikolweni ngeveki?*<br>(How many days a week do you go to school?) |
| 2 | **Ukuphindaphinda**<br>(Frequency) | *Wakha waya eMelika?*<br>(Have you been to America?) |
| 3 | **Ubuninzi**<br>(Quantity) | *Maninzi kakhulu amaNdiya eFreyistata?*<br>(Are there many Indians in the Free State?) |
| 4 | **Ukucinga**<br>(Reflection) | *Ucinga ukuba sesiphi esona sifundo sibalulekileyo esikolweni?*<br>(Which do you think is the most important subject at school?) |
| 5 | **Isantya**<br>(Speed) | *Iimoto zimele ukuhamba ngesiphi isantya phakathi edolophini?*<br>(At what speed are cars supposed to travel in town?) |
| 6 | **Ukwahlula**<br>(Contrast) | *Iintyatyambo zasehlotyeni ziyafana nezasebusika?*<br>(Are summer flowers the same as winter flowers?) |
| 7 | **Ubuninzi**<br>(Quantity) | *Ifunyanwa phi igolide eninzi eMzantsi Afrika?*<br>(Where is most gold found in South Africa?) |
| 8 | **Ukuphindaphinda**<br>(Frequency) | *Xa udibana nomhlobo wakho nisoloko nincokola ngezifundo?*<br>(When you meet your friend, do you always talk about school subjects?) |
| 9 | **Ubude bexesha**<br>(Length of time) | *Kwenzeka ntoni wakufika emva kwexesha eklasini?*<br>(What happens when you arrive late for class?) |
| 10 | **Okwexeshana**<br>(Temporary) | *Umfundi ofuna ukuba ngugqirha, ufunda ixesha elingakanani eyunivesithi?*<br>(How long does a student who wants to become a doctor study?) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 11 | **Inguqulelo**<br>(Change) | *(1) Guqulela esi sivakalisi esiNgesini:*<br>(Translate this phrase into English: "(1) Imithi (1) emide (1) yepayini." Long trees of pine) |
| 12 | **Ubuninzi**<br>(Quantity) | *Bonke abafundi kwesi sikolo bafunda isiXhosa?*<br>(Do all the pupils in this school learn Xhosa?) |

## SECTION D

**Instruction to the pupil**

I shall give you three topics.

You must choose one to discuss.

These are the topics:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | **Imidlalo**<br>(Sport) | *Khetha umdlalo owuthanda kakhulu, undichazele ngawo.*<br>(Choose a sport which you like best, and tell me about it.) |
| 2 | **Umzantsi-Afrika**<br>(South Africa) | *Wena uncokola nabantu baseMelika.*<br>*Khawubaxelele ngomZantsi-Afrika.*<br>(You are talking to people from/of America.<br>Tell them about South Africa.) |
| 3 | **Amaphepha-ndaba**<br>(Newspapers) | *Ucinga ukuba kubalulekile ukufunda amaphepha -ndaba? Kutheni?*<br>(Do you think it is important to read newspapers? Why?) |

For the listening comprehension test, commands were used in order to simulate real-life situations. In asking the pupil to carry out a command, the examiner hoped to establish the level of development of the listening comprehension skill of the pupil being tested. The commands were formulated in such a manner that the pupil could respond only if he/she understood the meaning of the vocabulary items used in the command.

Questions were asked for the purpose of obtaining information from the pupil. Statements used in the test items were to establish how well the pupil understood the message communicated to him/her.

## SCORING

### SECTION A

No marks were allocated in this section.

### SECTION B

One point per acceptable item of information comprehended by the pupil as reflected in his physical or verbal response. (12)

### SECTION C

#### SERIES A

One point per acceptable utterance made by the pupil. (12)

#### SERIES B

One point per acceptable utterance made by the pupil. (12)

### SECTION D

(See oral evaluation form.) (20)

(TOTAL: 56)

**SECTION D**

## ORAL EXAMINATION EVALUATION FORM

| Proficiency | No Response | Very Poor | Poor | Fair | Good | Excellent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Fluency | | | | | | |
| Grammar | | | | | | |
| Vocabulary | | | | | | |
| Effort to communicate | | | | | | |

TOTAL: 20

## SCORING GUIDELINES: DEFINITION OF EACH LEVEL ON THE SCALE

### FLUENCY

**No response**

**Very poor**

Speaker has many unnatural pauses.

**Poor**

Communication is realised through considerable effort on the part of the interviewer, speaker leaves sentences unfinished, lapses into silence, appears unable or unwilling to keep the conversation going.

**Fair**

Relies heavily on material to formulate response. While the speaker may produce a fairly lengthy reply, the intended meaning is not always clear.

**Good**

Speaker is confident of the ability to communicate and makes a considerable effort to get a point across, even non-verbally. Willingly adds material to the conversation.

**Excellent**

Speaker is sufficiently confident of the ability to communicate by using the language actively to seek information. May begin asking the interviewer questions. Shows awareness of differences in levels of usage.

### GRAMMAR

**No response**

**Very poor**

Grammar almost entirely inaccurate.

**Poor**

Can use only brief statement with no real syntax. May try to use isolated words or phrases, but is unable to make their interrelationships clear.

**Fair**

Shows awareness of grammatical features of the target language (classes, agreement, tenses). Transforms verb forms and word order into the forms and syntax needed for a reply.

**Good**

Grammatical errors do not cloud meaning. Does not need to model a reply on structures used previously. Able to use tenses other than the present appropriately.

**Excellent**

Errors are rare. Speaker can respond to corrections suggested by the interviewer or corrects own errors readily. Uses accurately nearly all the grammar presented to date. Willing to experiment with acquired language material.

**VOCABULARY**
**No response**
**Very poor**

Vocabulary very limited.

**Poor**

Vocabulary insufficient for simple conversation.

**Fair**

Sometimes inserts an English/Afrikaans word which has an equivalent pronunciation in Xhosa. Lacks active vocabulary.

**Good**

Adequate command of vocabulary taught. Can ask interviewer in target language to fill in occasional gaps. Choice of words usually accurate.

**Excellent**

Able to use virtually all vocabulary required. Has learnt extra vocabulary to describe special interests.

**EFFORT TO COMMUNICATE**
**No response**

Pupil is constantly asked questions to encourage response.

**Very poor**

No utterances rendered.

**Poor**

Pupil makes little effort to communicate.

**Fair**

Pupil makes an effort to communicate. Tries to complete the task. May add something not required by the task.

**Good**

Pupil makes a special effort to communicate. Makes an extreme effort to complete the task. Goes beyond the required task.

**Excellent**

Pupil makes an unusually good effort to communicate. Shows almost over-zealous effort to complete the task. Goes way beyond the required task. Uses all possible resources, verbal and non-verbal, to express herself/himself.

### 2.4 Analysing the pretest results

On receiving the data on the trial test, it was decided on the advice of consultants to do the following calculations. These had a bearing on validity, reliability and on possible interpretation of the results.

The researcher, in consultation with the consultants, calculated the significance of the difference of the various variables in the test as well as the correlation of these variables with one another.

The consultants assisted the researcher in determining acceptability. This was based on the following factors:

- discrimination between good and bad performance in the trial test
- significant spread in the allocation of marks amongst the testees
- practicability in administering the test
- comparison of the trial test results with other school results obtained in Xhosa
- comparison of the internal sections of all the subtests
- statistical significance of difference
- correlation
- relationship between the different sections of the test.

The following table shows the results of the trial test as well as school results gained during the first quarter of the term.

**Table 1 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS**

| School | Pupil | Sex | Home Lang | Sections* of Xhosa test B | C | | D | Total % | | School results (Xhosa) | School oral test (Xhosa) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | CA | CB | | | | | |
| | | | | (12) | (12) | (12) | (20) | (56) | % | % | % |
| A | 1 | F | Eng | 5 | 3 | 0 | 8 | 16 | 28,5 | 51,3 | 56 |
| | 2 | F | Dutch | 11 | 6 | 9 | 10 | 36 | 64,2 | 80 | 73 |
| | 3 | F | Eng | 11 | 7 | 11 | 13 | 42 | 75 | 76 | 75 |
| | 4 | F | Eng | 12 | 10 | 10 | 13 | 45 | 80,3 | 76,5 | 70 |
| | 5 | F | Eng | 8 | 4 | 7 | 10 | 29 | 51,7 | 67,8 | 63 |
| | 6 | F | Eng | 8 | 9 | 6 | 11 | 34 | 60,7 | 60,8 | 61 |
| | 7 | F | Eng | 8 | 3 | 4 | 11 | 26 | 46,4 | 51,7 | 56 |
| B | 1 | F | Afr | 6 | 5 | 4 | 10 | 25 | 44,6 | 63,3 | 63,3 |
| | 2 | F | Afr | 6 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 19 | 33,9 | 53,3 | 53 |
| | 3 | F | Afr | 6 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 19 | 33,9 | 50 | 50 |
| | 4 | F | Afr | 8 | 6 | 7 | 10 | 31 | 55,3 | 63,3 | 63 |
| | 5 | M | Afr | 6 | 4 | 3 | 9 | 22 | 39,2 | 50 | 50 |
| | 6 | F | Afr | 6 | 8 | 4 | 9 | 27 | 48,2 | 46,6 | 46,6 |
| | 7 | F | Afr | 6 | 5 | 4 | 10 | 25 | 44,6 | 58,3 | 58,3 |

*SECTION

B – Test on listening comprehension

CA – Test on functions

CB – Test on notions

D – Test on unstructured conversation.

### 2.5 Testing for validity, reliability and practicality

### 2.5.1 Validity

It is customary to distinguish various types of validity: face, criterion and construct validity. To determine whether a test shows any of the three types of validity mentioned above, it may be subjected to certain forms of evaluation.

For establishing face validity, test consultants may be asked to evaluate how applicable the test is to its purpose; criterion validity may be ascertained by selecting an available external criterion which is supposed to measure the same characteristic that the test sets out to measure; and construct validity may be determined by showing or arguing how the test items actually represent the construct of the test.

Face validity of this test was determined by consulting test consultants during the phase of constructing the test, as explained above.

Construct validity was argued in the overview of how the test items, and their organisation into various sections, were selected and finally formulated.

Criterion validity may be determined statistically. As stated earlier on, an external criterion is required. In this study, the only available external criterion was the scores given by teachers at the two schools of the individual pupils in their Xhosa tests. To facilitate maximum comparison with the trial test, tests results for the first quarter were selected as the criterion. Two sets of information were used: the total Xhosa school test results and the oral Xhosa school test as taken during the above-mentioned test.

It can be argued that the purpose of the total Xhosa school test was to evaluate writing and comprehension in Xhosa, while the trial test had been structured to test listening, comprehension, notions, functions and unstructured conversation. These are two sets of variables.

Results of the trial test and the total Xhosa school test, therefore, were expected to be different.

Based on the data presented in Table 1, application of the Spearman rank-order correlation gave a value of 0,21, which is regarded as a low correlation.

The coefficient of correlation is a statistic which expresses the degree of relationship between two sets of test scores or other variables. In correlation studies, researchers are interested in determining the degree of relationship between pairs of two or more variables. In other words, correlation studies allow researchers to determine the extent to which scores on one test are associated with scores on another test.

Spearman's rank-order correlation Rs measures correlation in ranking order of testees according to the two measurements. A test for difference between means, according to the t-test, produced a value of -3,64 (significant at 0,01). These statistical values confirmed that different results were gained by the two measures.

On the strength of this outcome, it was concluded that the trial test measured different characteristics from the total Xhosa school test.

It can be argued that the oral Xhosa school test came nearest to measuring oral proficiency in Xhosa, which was what the trial test set out to do. It was therefore expected that there would be a high correlation between results of the oral Xhosa school test and the trial test.

Applications of the Spearman rank-order (Rs=0,75) and the product-moment correlation coefficient (r=0,84) confirmed this expectation. If there had been a perfect relationship between the two sets of scores, the magnitude of the correlation coefficient would have been +1. A + 1 correlation coefficient indicates a perfect positive correlation. The greater the value, the stronger the relationship between the two variables. It can be stated therefore that (Rs = 0,75) and (r = ,84) are great enough (they are near enough to +1) to regard the correlation as high. Based on the above findings it can be concluded that sections of the Xhosa communicative test showed a high level of criterion validity.

### 2.5.2 Validity and reliability

In order to evaluate both the validity and reliability of the different sections of the trial test, mean scores, standard deviations, as well as differences amongst the various mean scores were inspected (Table 2).

**Table 2 INTERNAL COMPARISON OF SECTIONS IN TRIAL TEST**

| Section of Xhosa Trial test | Means | St. deviation |
|---|---|---|
| B | 63,66 | 18,65 |
| C A | 44,32 | 21,35 |
| C B | 44,62 | 25,85 |
| D | 50,00 | 8,09 |
| TOTAL | 50,46 | 15,34 |

| Comparison of Sections | T value | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| B – C A | 6,78 | 0,01 |
| B – C B | 6,75 | 0,01 |
| B – D | 4,00 | 0,01 |
| C A – C B | -0,11 | – |
| C A – D | -1,36 | – |
| C B – D | -1,02 | – |

On inspection of Table 2, particularly the column which shows the mean scores and the standard deviation, it will be noticed that section B of the trial test (listening comprehension) has a higher mean (63,66). This shows that the pupils' listening comprehension skill was better developed. This is in line with the findings of Chastain (1976), Nord (1980), Wilkes (1981) and Thiele (1983).

Chastain (1976:278) points out that the four language skills are all based on the same language system, which seems to be acquired in a series of definitely sequenced operations. First, the learners perceive a certain sequence of the language and discriminate among what they consider to be important linguistic aspects of the language. Second, they comprehend the distinctions involved and begin to formulate their own language system. Third, based on their hypothesis about the language, they develop a personal competence. Fourth, once they have the competence, they begin to use their performance skills.

Nord (1980:5) confirms the above argument and points out that it is a well documented fact that comprehension precedes speaking in the young child. He states that this sequence of development – comprehension first, production second – is a functional property of the human brain, which should not be violated in language instruction. He maintains that foreign language instruction should discourage speaking until a high degree of comprehension is achieved, that is until the student can understand an elementary conversation and decode it with ease. Nord argues further that there appears to be extensive evidence to support the positive transfer from listening to speaking. This study also confirmed the above perception. The finding that the score of other sections show no statistical difference should be acceptable because C A and C B (notions and functions) are integrated components and should therefore show the same level of scores.

Acceptable performance in D presupposes linguistic ability to perform in C A and C B. Communication involves ability to use functions and notions correctly in appropriate situations. D is therefore composed of some components reflected in C A and C B and should therefore not show statistical difference in the scores. This is confirmed by the finding in Table 2.

B, C A and C B are objective tests and D is subjective. The standard deviations in B, C A and C B are higher than in D. The possible reason for this may be that the tester (in both cases) may be inclined to centre marking around mean positions. It was advised therefore that strict adherence to marking procedure in D should be followed.

### 2.5.3 Reliability

Since consistency of results is the basic concept of reliability of a test, if a test or subtest produces the same or very nearly the same relative ordering and distance between the individuals in the group on both occasions, the test would be judged to have high stability reliability. Stability reliability is often referred to as test-retest reliability because it is estimated by testing, some time later retesting the same individuals, and then correlating the scores.

Since only one tester was used for this study, it was necessary to determine if this tester applied the test in a consistent way. This is known as intra-individual reliability.

To test for reliability a test-retest procedure was used (Table 3). A high level of stability was established.

**Table 3 PRESENTATION OF TEST AND RETEST RESULTS**

| School | Pupil | Sex | Trial test<br>% | Final test<br>% |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 1 | F | 28 | 28.5 |
| 2 | F | 64 | 64.2 | |
| 3 | F | 75 | 75 | |
| 4 | F | 80 | 80 | |
| 5 | F | 51 | 51.7 | |
| 6 | F | 60 | 60.7 | |
| 7 | F | 46 | 46.4 | |
| B | 1 | F | 44 | 44.6 |
| 2 | F | 33 | 33.9 | |
| 3 | F | 33 | 33.9 | |
| 4 | F | 55 | 55.3 | |
| 5 | M | 39 | 39.2 | |
| 6 | F | 50 | 48.2 | |
| 7 | F | 44 | 44.6 | |

In Table 3 above, the researcher tried to prove the reliability of the test. This was done by comparing the results of both the trial test and the final test obtained from some pupils at the same schools, at two monthly intervals. This test produced the same or very nearly the same relative ordering and distance between the individuals in the group on both occasions.

### 2.5.4 Practicability

Another feature of the trial test was its practicability, which involved such factors as time and ease of scoring. One may agree with Liskin-Gasparro (1984:483) that a direct test of writing and speaking ability will never be truly practical, since it would be conducted by human raters. Nevertheless, the trial test was easy to administer and to score. Although the time taken to administer the test was longer than expected, adjustments could be made to solve this problem.

The researcher also attempted to make the test as authentic as possible. Simulated real-life interactive communicative operations were used in preparing the test.

### 2.6 Overall remarks on the trial test

It was accepted that the trial test could be improved over a period of time. For example, the test would be more meaningful if all its test items were organised around a theme. Canale (1984:354) confirms the view that thematic organisation is one of the features worth considering in improving language testing. A thematically organised test would represent and group those tasks that provide a coherent, natural, and motivating structure to the test. In the trial test, for instance, the researcher should ideally have considered a variety of subthemes and language tasks naturally linked to an overall theme such as education. In section D the examiner could have asked each testee to tell him about his/her school for example. This technique would have bridged an information gap, since the examiner was a total stranger to all the testees. By using schooling as a theme, he would have been able to use the test items in a more cohesive and natural manner.

The test was integrated in that the functions and notions were used in a context. There was also social interaction between the examiner and the pupil. In other words, language was used for the purpose of bringing out social meaning. The pupil responded to what the examiner was saying to him. As the test was an achievement test by nature, it had elements of achievement in it which were related to the syllabus preceding it.

### 2.7 Assembling the final form of the test

Time was a crucial factor. The examiner was given specific times at which to visit the schools in order not to disturb the schools' programmes. It was realised that some of the language items used in the test were new to the pupils when the pupils took a longer time to respond. These few items were either deleted or substituted after consultation.

In sections B and C a sentence was included in the instruction to the pupil. It read as follows:

> Each sentence will be read twice and you must respond immediately after the second time.

This was intended to make the instructions as clear and explicit as possible. Because the pupil was not used to being addressed by a Xhosa mother-tongue speaker, it was assumed that he would experience difficulty at first in understanding the examiner.

In Section B item 7 the word "iyanetha" was substituted by "iyana". The pupils were acquainted with "iyana" as the word appears in the course book. It was decided to delete the word "kuyabanda" in order to deal with one thought in the sentence, thus saving responding time.

The word "emanzini" in item 11 was deleted for the same reason.

In section C series A, the word ' weqakamba" in item 2 was replaced by "wombhoxo" to make it easier for the pupil to comprehend. The words "yombhoxo" and "yehoki" were deleted in order to cut down on reaction time by the pupil.

The phrase "uza kuphatha" was replaced by "uphethe". The former was found to be semantically incorrect in that it suggests one is cautious of what one possesses at that particular time.

Because the pupils were not used to the word "eMelika" in section C series B item 2, it was replaced by 'ERhawutini'. Item 11 was replaced by the following:

"Indaba ze T.V. ziguqulwa ngubani?"

The reason for this change was that the original test item tended to evaluate translation skills of the pupils, a variable which this test was not intended to measure.

In section D, topic 1 was changed to read: Khetha imidlalo oyithanda kakhulu, undichazele ngayo.

This change gave the pupil the opportunity to discuss more than one sport. The pupil could thus use all the vocabulary related to the various sports instead of being restricted to discussing only one.

A final test was reproduced. Marks were allocated as in the trial test. A summary sheet was prepared for entering all available marks of each testee.

### 2.8 Test administration

A total of 159 pupils was tested from twenty-six schools. The fourteen pupils tested in the provisional test were included in the group tested. This inclusion appeared to have no effect on the results of the overall test because on average the scores for the provisional as well as the main test were the same. The scoring was not abnormal.

Consider the following table:

**Table 4 AVERAGE SCORES OF PROVISIONAL AND MAIN TESTS**

| School | N | Provisional test Average % | Main test Average % |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 7 | 57,7 | 58,0 |
| 2 | 7 | 42,5 | 42,8 |

It was decided to include as subjects all the pupils enrolled to study Xhosa at Senior Certificate level under the Cape Department of Education. The tests were carried out in April and May 1985 in the Western Cape and in July of the same year in the Eastern Cape and Border. After the testing had been completed, the raw data was computed and the data was displayed in computer printouts.

### 2.9 Evaluation of the final test

A further statistic was used to check the reliability of the full final test to ascertain discriminative reliability analysis. This was done by dividing the students into two groups: the bottom twenty-five percent who obtained the lowest marks (group 1) and the top twenty-five percent who obtained the highest marks (group 2). The significance of differences in performance in the final test of the two groups was calculated. The results are given in the following table:

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*Following: M. Norusis: Introductory statistics guide SPSSX

**Table 5 COMPARISON OF GROUP1 AND GROUP2 IN FINAL TEST**

| Group | N | Means | Section of Xhosa Final test | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 45 | 43,7 | B | 0,000 |
| 2 | 40 | 85 | | |
| 1 | 45 | 17,0 | CA | 0,000 |
| 2 | 40 | 71,2 | | |
| 1 | 45 | 18,1 | CB | 0,000 |
| 2 | 40 | 73,2 | | |
| 1 | 45 | 40,4 | D | 0,000 |
| 2 | 40 | 66,0 | | |

In Table 5 the difference in performance in all the sections of the final test between group 1 and group 2 is shown to be highly significant, 0,000 (at .025 probability level). The performance of each group is also consistent. In other words, the lowest group maintains the same level of performance (remains lowest) in all the sections of the final test whilst the group with the highest marks maintains the same level of performance in the final test as well.

This table confirms the initial conclusion regarding the reliability of the test. Therefore, the test met its requirements. The above discussion has attempted to prove the test's validity and reliability.

## 2.10 Test constraints

The examiner as well as the testees were subjected to several constraints. These were similar to those identified by Mareschal (1980:48):

- finding tricks to make artificial situations look more natural and conducive to spontaneous speech
- enticing confidence on the part of the testee
- developing a test which is simple, easy to score, short and valid.

To build up the pupil's confidence, the examiner took the initiative, greeting the pupil, asking a few questions and explaining the purpose of the test. This encouraged the pupil to respond fairly naturally and unaffectedly.

From the onset, the test was constructed in an economical manner so as to be practicable and to save time.

## 2.11 Conclusion

In this study an attempt to merge linguistic theory with practice has been discussed. The researcher has shown how the objectives of a communicative syllabus may be evaluated by means of a communicative language test.

Steps and guidelines which may be followed in constructing a language test have been suggested and applied in constructing a communicative test for pupils learning Xhosa at Senior Certificate level. The test items did not emphasise linguistic accuracy, but the ability to function effectively through language in particular settings and contexts. The implication was that linguistic activity should be of kinds and under conditions which approximate real life.

The application of communicative language testing to the communicative language teaching approach has been an attempt to show how linguistic theory can be tested in practice, and how the difficulties of practice can be referred to theory. It is obvious, however, that further research is still required.

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## SPECIAL ISSUE

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# Raising achievement levels by means of Suggestopedia

M.S. Odendaal

The tendency of L2 learners to fossillize at certain language proficiency levels is a phenomenon familiar to all L2 teachers and a source of great frustration for both teachers and learners. In the experiment described in this paper, it appears that a suggestopedic course of ±33 hours brought about a meaningful change in the L2 learners' language proficiency. In addition a meaningful improvement in the learners' IQ could be perceived.

T2 leerlinge se fossilering op 'n bepaalde taalvaardigheidsvlak is 'n bekende verskynsel en die bron van groot frustrasie vir T2 onderwysers. Uit die eksperiment wat in dié artikel beskryf word, blyk dit dat 'n suggestopediese kursus van ±33 uur 'n betekenisvolle verandering aan T2 leerlinge se taalvaardigheid gemaak het. Daarbenewens het dit 'n betekenisvolle toename in leerlinge se IK tellings tot gevolg gehad.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Second language teachers' frustration at their inability to raise the level of their learners' proficiency beyond a certain level is a well-known phenomenon. Learners are usually equally discouraged by their slow rate of improvement in fluency, by their inability to think in the second language and by the fossilization of errors in their output.

This has been experienced particularly by English lecturers at teachers' colleges. After 15 years' tuition students still failed to attain the Band 7 that Brendan Carroll considers a prerequisite for a teacher of English as a second language. The fact that most of these students have to teach English in primary schools and would thus perpetuate their own level of proficiency, aggravated the problem. This situation prompted the lecturers in English at the Denneoord College for Continued Training to try Suggestopedia with second language speakers as a means of accelerative learning. An experiment was launched to establish whether the proficiency of second language speakers of English could be improved more rapidly by means of Suggestopedia.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the experiment that was undertaken, to report its findings and to suggest possible implications for education.

## 2 AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION

The following hypotheses were investigated:

- students' proficiency in English would be raised from an average Band 5/6 to Band 7 on the Carroll scale by means of Suggestopedia;
- students' cognitive skills would be improved;
- students' attitude towards English would be improved.

## 3 DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENT

### 3.1 The target population

The target population consisted of two groups:

The experimental group which consisted of 15 third year Diploma of Education students of Denneoord College for Continued Training and the control group of 17 third year Diploma of

Education students of Paarl Teachers' Training College. No students were available at Denneoord to serve as a control group. The two colleges are similar in the following respects:

- both are situated in small, predominantly Afrikaans-speaking towns;
- the medium of instruction in both colleges is Afrikaans;
- both use the same Junior Primary and Senior Primary English syllabuses for colleges of the Cape Education Department;
- the English examinations of both are moderated by the University of Stellenbosch to ensure similar standards;
- both write the same English Bilingualism paper in the final year, which influences the teaching.

The groups can be described as follows:

| | Experimental Group | Control Group |
|---|---|---|
| Sex | 15 female | 16 female<br>1 male |
| Average age | 21,4 years | 21,05 years |
| MT | Afrikaans | Afrikaans |
| Place of residence | 4 urban<br>11 rural | 5 urban<br>12 rural |
| Average I.Q. | 108,07 | 109,29 |
| Academic qualifications | matriculation | matriculation |
| Professional training | completing 3rd year of Junior or Senior Primary course at Denneoord College | completing 3rd year of Junior or Senior Primary course at Paarl College |
| Coúrse taken | Junior Primary 11<br>Senior Primary 4 | Junior Primary 8<br>Senior Primary 9 |
| Average band of proficiency in English on Carroll's scale | 6,38 | 6,43 |

The samples could not be selected on a random basis as the two groups have to be together in one institution in order to receive instruction and as there were only fifteen students available at Denneoord College for Continued Education. It will therefore not be claimed that the findings of this experiment have universal significance.

### 3.2 Method of instruction

- **The experimental group:** Physical relaxation exercises at the beginning of each session.
- Mental relaxation exercises in order to achieve mind-calming and concentration. They were accompanied by soothing music.
- A prelude, or preview, or decoding of the text lasting approximately 10-15 minutes. It preceded the two concerts which were presented approximately every $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours. It gave the students a preview or "Big Picture" of the subsequent act. Possibly unfamiliar idiomatic language and grammatical constructions were explained to guarantee maximum comprehension and to prevent anxiety.

- The first concert which lasted approximately 25 minutes, followed the prelude immediately. A chapter of the text was read dramatically and rhythmically to the accompaniment of a Vienna classic concert, e.g. Mozart, Haydn or Beethoven. The students followed the text in copies that had been handed to them just prior to the concert. Full comprehension was obtained by the translations which were provided in the right-hand margin of the text. The students were encouraged to repeat the L2 words and phrases softly to themselves during pauses.
- A brief interval of 2 minutes was allowed subsequently when students could stand up and stretch themselves.
- The second concert lasted ± 17 minutes. The lights were dimmed, students were encouraged to sit back and relax. To the accompaniment of slow movements from Baroque music, the same text was read with normal phrasing and intonation.
- A period of activation which ranged from 2½ to 3½ hours.

Two kinds of activation were used:

primary activations – they were based on the text;

secondary activations which were not direct/directly related to the text, inter alia:

- games to practise the new identities
- developing new biographies, occupations, places of origin
- role play
- games to practise language structures, e.g. snap, dice games
- miming.

**The control group:** Tuition was given as follows:

Two periods per week (70 minutes) were devoted to literature study. Prescribed books were read and discussed in class. Two more periods (70 minutes) per week were devoted to language study. During the fifth period the Senior Primary students received tuition in Didactics.

## 4 MEANS OF DATA COLLECTION

The following tests were administered before instruction commenced and immediately upon completion of the course:

### 4.1 Brendan Carroll G.A.D. 1 English Proficiency Test

The General Advanced Test (copyright Pergamon) was devised by Brendan Carroll for testing communication. It has been standardized and is used in many countries to test communicative competence. In accordance with recent emphases it tests communication (use) rather than the traditionally emphasized formal accuracy (usage) and specific rather than general language skills.

### 4.2 C. Kitching's English Proficiency Test

This test was developed for Afrikaans-speaking college students, i.e. a target population similar to that of the experimental and control groups. It is being used at Wellington Teachers' College as a placement test for first-years.

### 4.3 Dr. H.L. Botha's Opinionnaire

This attitudinal scale was based on the Rikert Method (Botha: 230). It was developed by Dr. Botha for an M-thesis to determine the attitudes of English-speaking high school pupils towards Afrikaans and the Afrikaans culture.

### 4.4 Nuwe Suid-Afrikaanse Groeptoets for measuring I.Q.

It was administered by a researcher of the Bureau for Student Counselling of the University of Stellenbosch.

### 4.5 Questionnaire on Suggestopedia course

This questionnaire was devised to record the experimental testees' reactions to the suggestopedic course.

## 5 SUMMARY OF THE DATA

The following tables present the average percentage scores for the pre- and post-tests of the experimental control groups in the different tests:

### 5.1 Table 1 N=15

Average percentages of pre- and post-tests of the experimental group for the Kitching Proficiency Test, the Carroll Proficiency Test and the Botha Opinionnaire

| *Tests* | *Pre* | *Post* | *Difference* |
|---|---|---|---|
| KPT | 57,9 | 66,6 | +8,7 |
| CPT | 59,4 | 66,13 | +6,73 |
| BO | 47,6 | 57 | +9,4 |

### 5.2 Table 2 N=16

Average percentages of pre- and post-tests of the control group for the Kitching Proficiency Test, the Carroll Proficiency Test and the Botha Opinionnaire

| *Tests* | *Pre* | *Post* | *Difference* |
|---|---|---|---|
| KPT | 56,9 | 58,1 | +1,2 |
| CPT | 60,1 | 59,7 | −0,4 |
| BO | 46,25 | 47,18 | +0,93 |

### 5.3 Table 3 N=14

Average I.Q. scores of the pre- and post-tests of the experimental group

| | *Pre-test* | *Post-test* | *Increase* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Non-verbal score | 108,92 | 113,5 | +4,58 |
| Verbal score | 107,00 | 116,57 | +9,57 |
| Total I.Q. score | 108,07 | 116,07 | +8,00 |

### 5.4 Table 4 N=16

Average I.Q. scores of the pre- and post-tests of the control group

| | *Pre-test* | *Post-test* | *Increase/Decrease* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Non-verbal score | 109,8 | 110,5 | +0,7 |
| Verbal score | 108,2 | 103,1 | −5,1 |
| Total I.Q. score | 109,3 | 106,9 | −2,4 |

In all the tests the average percentage increase or the increase in average score was higher for the experimental group than for the control group.

## 6 SIGNIFICANCE OF AVERAGE SCORE CHANGES

### 6.1 Statistical analysis of data

The data were submitted to several statistical methods in order to obtain the most refined analysis.

For the: Botha Opionionnaire

Kitching Test

I.Q. test

the t-test for paired comparisons (cf McGhee 1985 pp 374-7) was selected.

### 6.2 Analysis of differences between pre-tests of experimental and control groups

In order to establish whether there was any statistically significant difference between the English proficiency, the I.Q. and attitude of the experimental group and the control group at the commencement of the experiment, viz whether any comparison between the two groups would be valid (or justifiable), the pre-tests of the:

Kitching Test
Carroll Test
I.Q. test

of the control and experimental groups were first compared and subjected to statistical analysis.

The following table presents the results of these analyses.

**Table 5**

Two sample student t-analysis of difference between the experimental (N=14) and control (N=17) groups

| | | P | Null hypothesis |
|---|---|---|---|
| English proficiency (Carroll Test) | t(29) = 0,329 | 0,744 | not rejected |
| English proficiency (Kitching Test) | t(30) = 0,322 | 0,750 | not rejected |
| Non-Verbal I.Q. | t(30) = 0,212 | 0,834 | not rejected |
| I.Q. test | t(31) = 0,360 | 0,721 | not rejected |

#### 6.2.1 Conclusions

According to the statistical analysis there was no significant difference between the English proficiency or the I.Q. of the experimental group and that of the control group. In other words both groups were approximately at the same level at the beginning of the experimental period and the degree of difference that could be measured in each at the end of the experiment could therefore validly be compared.

### 6.3 Findings

Subsequently the differences that occurred between the pre-tests and post-tests of the experimental and control groups in the:

Botha Opinionnaire

Carroll GAD test

Kitching Proficiency Test

Nuwe Suid-Afrikaanse Groeptoets for measuring verbal I.Q.

Nuwe Suid-Afrikaanse Groeptoets for measuring I.Q. total

were subjected to t-test analysis.

The following table present the findings of these analysis:

**Table 6**

Comparison of the t-test analysis of:

| | **Experimental group** | **Control group** |
|---|---|---|
| Improvement in positive attitude towards English<br>(Botha Opinionnaire) | t(14)=1,374<br>p=0,191<br>not significant | t(15)=0,222<br>p=0,827<br>not significant |
| Improvement in English proficiency<br>(Carroll Test) | t(14)=4,634<br>p=0,000<br>highly significant<br>(0,1% level) | t(15)=0,330<br>p=0,746<br>not significant |
| Improvement in English proficiency<br>(Kitching Test) | 9(14)=-5,355<br>p=0,0001<br>highly significant<br>(0,1% level) | t(16)=0,782<br>p=0,446<br>not significant |
| Improvement in verbal I.Q.<br>(SA Groeptoets) | t(13)=6,051<br>p=0,000<br>highly significant<br>(0,1% level) | t(16)=1,623<br>p=0,124<br>not significant |
| Improvement in non-verbal I.Q.<br>(SA Groeptoets) | t(13)=-1,945<br>p= 0,037<br>significant<br>at 5% level | t(16)=-0,186<br>p= 0,854<br>not significant |
| I.Q. improvement in I.Q. total<br>(SA Groeptoets) | t(13)=-6,110<br>p= 0,000<br>highly significant<br>(0,1% level) | t(16)=0,789<br>p=0,442<br>not significant |

### 6.3.2 Conclusions

Two significant changes were indicated by the test.

- The English proficiency of the experimental group improved significantly during the period of suggestopedic instruction – from an average band 6,38 to band 7,1 on Brendan Carroll's scale.
- The control group's proficiency showed no significant change, and on Brendan Carroll's scale dropped slightly from an average band 6,43 to band 6,34.
- The average verbal I.Q. and the I.Q. total of the experimental group increased significantly during the period of suggestopedic instruction, while that of the control group showed no significant change.

### 6.4 Extracts from testees' personal impressions of the course

| Impression | No. of subjects |
|---|---|
| One of the most wonderful experiences of my life | 3 |
| Learned without noticing it | 1 |
| For the first time I could be relaxed in a learning situation | 3 |
| It was marvellous not to have pronunciation and movements restricted | 3 |
| The atmosphere and the course were enjoyable | 7 |
| Other subjects should use these methods | 2 |
| Effective and worthwhile | 2 |
| A great success | 4 |
| Was uncertain before when speaking English; gained confidence in using it | 6 |
| Increasingly enjoyable to use English | 1 |
| Would have adopted English as MT if it had been taught like this | 1 |
| Vocabulary increased much | 2 |
| Close ties developed in group | 3 |
| Peripherals aroused interest | 4 |
| Whole attitude to English changed | 4 |
| Began to believe I could succeed | 2 |
| Began thinking in English | 2 |
| Lost inhibitions | 1 |
| Enjoyed activities | 1 |
| Was emotionally involved | 1 |

Though all the comments were emphatically positive, two students did not contribute their impressions, which may be an indication that they were less positive.

### 6.5 Summary of personal impressions

The main statements made by the questionnaires could be summarised as follows:

- The subjects' response to the course as a whole was strongly positive. Out of a possible 476 responses 21 were negative.
- Great joy was generated during and seemingly by the course. This correlates with the observation and experience of the lecturers.
- The tension during the learning situation was greatly reduced. Subjects were conscious of increased relaxation and loss of inhibitions.
- Subjects' perception of their own command of the target language improved. They said they found they could think in English and one said that when she spoke English "the words just came". This

*impression is supported* by the proficiency tests which indicated significant improvement in proficiency. But even without objective support, the subjects' improved confidence in their proficiency would be conducive to acquisiton as the affective filter would be lowered.

- Subjects experienced a more positive attitude towards English.
- The group dynamics generated in the group promoted better social relations and three testees commented on the understanding that developed in the group.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

### 7.1 Re-evaluation of hypotheses

In the light of the data that were collected the hypotheses formulated at the outset of this investigation can be re-evaluated.

#### HYPOTHESIS ONE

Students' proficiency would be raised from an average band 5/6 to band 7 on Carroll's scale by means of Suggestopedia.

This hypothesis was sustained. The average band of the students taught by Suggestopedia, band 6,38 on Carroll's scale, was raised to band 7,1. It was, however, rejected by the students taught by conventional means – their average band 6,43 declined to band 6,34.

#### HYPOTHESIS TWO

Students' cognitive skills will improve significantly as a result of instruction by means of Suggestopedia.

This hypothesis was likewise validated. Students taught by Suggestopedia showed a significant increase in verbal I.Q. and I.Q. total scores. There was no significant change in any of the I.Q. scores of students taught by conventional means.

#### HYPOTHESIS THREE

Students' attitude towards English will be improved significantly by means of Suggestopedia.

This hypothesis was not sustained. The attitude of the students taught by means of Suggestopedia did improve more than that of students taught by conventional means but the improvement was significant only at the 20% level.

### 7.2 On the basis of the students' responses (see 6.5) the following conclusions seem valid:

- Suggestopedia seems able to break through the barrier of fossilizations and it enables students to think in the TL and speak with greater confidence and fluency. The findings of the proficiency tests bear this out.
- Suggestopedia seems to succeed in breaking down the affective filter that impedes language acquisition. Students experience a decrease of tension, an increase in relaxation, an increase in self-confidence and faith in their performance in the TL.
- Suggestopedia seems to effect personal development. Students experienced enhanced self-confidence, better relations with their group. (Students' own testimony.)

## 8 RECOMMENDATIONS

In a multi-lingual country such as South Africa

- where so much teaching is done through the medium of a second language

- where the quality of the teaching is severely affected by the teachers' command of the second *language*
- where numerous, so far ineffectual, efforts have been made to upgrade the level of the teachers' proficiency in the second language (vide Bot: 1986)
- where underdeveloped cognitive skills seem to retard learning as well as mastery of the medium

it seems imperative that a close scrutiny should be directed at a method of language teaching which

- dramatically improves proficiency
- improves cognitive skills.

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# Speech acts: the communicative revolution in language teaching

R. Blunt

In the last two decades, both the Theory of Speech Acts and its application have been extensive. The theory has been exploited particularly in the field of Applied Linguistics. The purpose of the writer is to indicate the value of the concept, to explain why it needs close analysis, to outline the theoretical constructions formulated to enable Applied Linguists to exploit the concept, and to describe some of the problems which arise from the application of the theory.

Gedurende die afgelope twee dekades het beide die Teorie van Spraakhandelinge en die toepassing daarvan uitgebrei. Die teorie is veral op die gebied van Toegepaste Linguistiek benut. Die doelstelling van die skrywer is om te wys op die waarde van die konsep en te verduidelik waarom intensiewe ontleding nodig is. Die skrywer omskryf ook die teoretiese strukture wat geformuleer is om toegepaste taalkundiges in staat te stel om die konsep te benut, asook sommige probleme wat uit die toepassing van die teorie spruit.

## 1 THE VALUE OF THE CONCEPT "SPEECH ACT"

Until quite recently, the main emphasis in teaching and learning a new language was on the cognitive element expressed through propositions such as:

> The Romans were slain by the arrows of the barbarians.
>
> The food was taken from the table by a slave.

It was assumed that, because this approach enabled the learner to decode literary classics, it was an adequate method for learning a language (the grammar-translation method).

J.L. Austin pointed out that this kind of utterance was but one of a long list of purposes or functions for which language is used. When someone utters something, it is normally done with an intention to do something by means of the utterance, or to "act" through "speech". For example, when one says:

> "I will come and see you tomorrow", one is **promising**;
>
> "I think you will pass your exams", one is **declaring one's belief about something**;
>
> "Go to the end of the street", one is **commanding**, or **instructing**;
>
> "That was a good job that you did", one is **congratulating.**

People learn a new language in order to do things, (perform speech acts) by means of it, and instead of learning all the sentence structures, vocabulary, idioms, and so on of a language, it is much more efficient (quicker and more appropriate, with less wasted effort) for a second language learner to learn to perform only those speech acts which are needed for his or her particular purposes.

For example, a person who wanted to work as a waiter in a restaurant, would need to be able to **greet** new customers, **guide** them to a table, **request** them to give their order, **advise** about the best food to choose, and many other things such as **thanking**, **confirming**, **describing**, **apologising**, etc.

Therefore, it is not necessary for such a person to learn the whole language, but only to perform those speech acts appropriate to his or her needs. This has given rise to what is known as the *functional curriculum in* second or foreign language learning.

The problem with such a functional curriculum lies in identifying the communicative needs of the learner. The speech acts themselves must be identified, but in addition there are often several ways of performing them. For example, consider some of the common ways of warning someone against doing something:

I warn you against going there. (explicit warning)

Don't go there! (literally, a command)

I wouldn't go there if I were you. (literally, a prediction)

Going there isn't a good idea. (literally, opinioning, judging)

Why go there (of all places)? (literally, a question)

You're not going there, are you? (a tag-question inviting a denial)

It's stupid to go there. (literally, opinioning, evaluating or judging).

Or, to return to our example of a waiter, we might teach what is meant by the question, "Waiter, what do you recommend?" But the first customer to ask for a recommendation is just as likely to say, "What's good?" or "How is your fish?".

## 2 THE NEED FOR AN ANALYSIS OF SPEECH ACTS

The immediate need for a teacher to provide for all eventualities in the pupil's communicative environment demands research into the speech acts which the pupil will need to perform and understand. Lesson preparation for teachers of the functional language curriculum is, therefore, a matter of identifying relevant speech acts for pupils' needs, together with their appropriate realizations.

However, in order to develop anything approaching a formal curriculum, the educationalist requires an analysis of speech acts covering all communicative events, against which progress and objectives can be measured. How can speech acts be analysed?

Austin (1962) offered a first step by pointing out two different ways in which speech acts are performed, which result in distinctively different lists of speech acts.

The first type, and by far the most common and important for language and for teaching purposes, are speech acts which are performed "by uttering the right, explicit performative sentences", (Akmajian, 1979). In other words, you say what you mean. For example:

I order you to leave. (Speech Act: commanding)

I promise to come. (Speech Act: promising)

I appoint you chairman. (Speech Act: pronouncing)

These, Austin called **illocutionary acts**. An illocutionary act is performed **in** uttering it. It is the speaker's intention of how he or she wishes the utterance to be taken (as a command, promise, etc.). An **illocutionary act** does not depend on the listener or receiver to be successful. Even if the listener misinterprets the speaker's intention, the illocutionary act will have been successful if the intention has been performed by uttering the right explicit performative sentence. Verbs which perform explicit illocutionary acts are called **performative** verbs.

The second type he called **perlocutionary acts**. These are not performed by uttering the right explicit performative sentence. Rather they are achieved by means of illocutionary acts, but their effect is not that of the illocutionary act.

For example, the illocutionary act of **stating**, "This soap is made from pure vegetable oils", has the perlocutionary effect of **persuading**. Or the illocutionary act of **warning**, "If you don't do your reading, you will fail your exams", has the perlocutionary effect of **intimidating**.

Notice that perlocutionary acts have the force but not the form of the illocutionary act. Therefore, perlocutionary acts are said to have illocutionary force.

Perlocutionary acts involve both the **intentions** of the speaker and their **effects** on the thoughts, feelings and actions of the hearer, by means of the speech act. The illocutionary act is performed **in** uttering something, whereas the perlocutionary act is performed **by** uttering something. Examples of perlocutionary acts are: intimidating, persuading, deceiving, irritating, impressing, inspiring, and embarrassing.

The following dialogue will be used to exemplify the distinction between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. Notice that the reader is forced to search for clues to construct a context which will explain the waiter's behaviour.

Waiter: Good evening, sir. Welcome to the restaurant. Please take table number twenty in the corner. (The man sits down and the waiter approaches with the menu.)

Customer: What do you recommend?

Waiter: I recommend the chicken, sir.

Customer: No, I think I would like a steak.

Waiter: I recommend the chicken, sir. It has a delicious sauce.

Customer: I want steak. I don't want chicken.

Waiter: The chef's recommendation is the chicken, sir.

Customer: Are you deaf? I said I want steak.

Waiter: I warn you that the steak is a little off, sir.

Customer: Oh, I see. All right, bring me your chicken.

In reading this dialogue, we are able to predict a context for the waiter's behaviour, namely, that he/she was trying to avoid the embarrassment of admitting that the restaurant could not provide a steak by performing, insistently, the speech act of **recommending**. This is an illocutionary act, and the waiter was using it in an attempt to perform the perlocutionary act of **persuading**. However, the waiter was not successful, and eventually resorted to another illocutionary act, this time warning the customer against the steak. This resulted in the perlocutionary act being realized, and the customer was persuaded to order the chicken.

Notice that, even if the waiter had said, "I am persuading you to choose the chicken", the customer might not have been persuaded. It was only by means of the illocutionary act of warning that the perlocutionary act was performed.

This distinction is of less interest to the language teacher than to the philosopher. Consider, for instance, the philosophical problem of whether the act of **teaching** is illocutionary or perlocutionary. If it is perlocutionary, then this entails important considerations about the teacher's responsibility for ensuring that what the teacher intends the pupil to learn is learned.

The language teacher who intends his pupils to communicate in a language must teach them to do things with the language, or to perform speech acts. To do this, an analysis of speech acts according to criteria will enable the teacher to identify realizations of speech acts which will be most valuable for the needs of the pupils. Two major contributions to this problem have been made. The first, by Austin, has been developed further by several linguists, and the second is by Del Hymes.

## 3 CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH ACTS

Hymes (1968) classified speech acts according to their focus in the communicative event. He identified several factors in communication and showed that speech acts usually focus on one of these, resulting in six groups of speech functions. Such groups are called "macro functions".

Communication involves, firstly, the **speaker**, and any speech act which expresses the speaker's attitudes towards things would focus on the speaker as a person. These speech acts would include opining, judging, believing and intending. They have a **personal function**.

Secondly, communication involves a **hearer**. Speech acts which focus on the hearer would be those which are directive, such as commanding, suggesting, warning and permitting. They have a **directive function**.

Thirdly, the speaker and hearer need to create **contact** in order to communicate, and this would require speech acts which call a hearer's attention (greetings, etc.), solicit their continuing attention ("Do you follow?"), keep the conversation going through "small talk", and signpost the conversation (listing points, defining terms, giving examples). These speech acts are said to have a **phatic function**.

Fourthly, speech acts which focus on the rules of a particular **linguistic code** (such as the defining function in the scientific code) have what is termed a **metalinguistic function**.

Fifthly, those speech acts which focus on the **topic** of the utterance, and/or on its **setting in place and time**, have a **referential function**. This function was seized on by the old grammar-translation method of language teaching as being most appropriate to understanding the literature of the language.

Sixthly, speech acts which focus on the form of the message, its volume, tone or presentation, have what is termed an **imaginative function**. The term imaginative is used in the sense of oral or written composing, whereby the style of the composition conveys a rhetorical message in addition to its propositional content.

Each of these functions of speech can be signalled by the speaker in order to warn the hearer about his or her intentions of how the utterance is to be taken. These signals are called "function indicating devices". So the personal function may be indicated by saying "In my opinion . . .", or "I think . . .", and the directive function may be signalled by the form of a question or command, preceeded in the polite form by the modals would or could, as in "Would you help me carry these books?".

Austin's classification (1962), by contrast, attempted to categorise the communicative intentions behind utterances. His analysis has since been extensively modified and revised, particularly by Van Ek, Wilkins and Munby, and it is Munby's version which I will outline in order to give a recent categorisation of the functional uses of language. There are seven groups of functions, also termed macro-functions:

> The first group is a **scale of certainty**, which includes speech acts expressing degrees of personal certainty (I am certain, I think, I doubt, I am not certain), and impersonal certainty (he is sure to pass, he should pass, he may pass, he is certain not to pass).
>
> The second is a **scale of commitment** including speech acts expressing intention (I want/prefer/promise . . .), and obligation (it is my duty/responsibility).
>
> The third group includes speech acts expressing **judgement and evaluation**, including valuation (I estimate it is worth . . .), verdiction (I condemn/sentence/forgive you), approval (I commend/appreciate your concern) and disapproval (I deplore your ingratitude).
>
> The fourth group expresses **suasion**, including inducement (I suggest/advise . . .), compulsion (I command/prohibit . . .), prediction (I warn/invite/threaten . . .), and tolerance (I consent/agree to/ authorise . . .).

The fifth expresses **argument**, stating or asserting information, seeking information and denying information (I reject/oppose your point . . . ), expressing agreement, disagreement (I wouldn't go along with that point) or concession.

The sixth group expresses **rational enquiry and exposition**, and includes stating presuppositions, hypotheses, substantiating, generalising, concluding, interpreting, explaining, demonstrating, classifying, defining and exemplifying.

The seventh and final group expresses **formulaic communication** such as greeting, farewells, thanking, apologising, congratulating, commiserating, and saying things which show that you are paying attention.

Hymes' analysis gives more attention to the interpersonal, metalinguistic and imaginative functions of language (its stylistic, rhetorical features), while Munby analyses the personal, directive and referential functions more closely, particularly with regard to degrees of certainty, commitment, judgement, argument, rational enquiry and exposition. In addition, Munby's indications of the variety of realisations of functions, particularly the formal-informal options available, and his cross references to the important **Communicative Grammar of English** by Leech and Svartvik, are valuable for language teachers.

Munby's analysis is applied at the end of a profile of needs for the language learner. This profile identifies the learner's role for which the language is needed, the setting, who the interaction will be with, how communication will take place (spoken or written, in dialogue, face to face or by phone and so on), the communicative events, the communicative activities, and the subject matter which must be known.

Using this profile, the teacher is able to select a list of the speech acts which will form the essential communicative knowledge required for the learner's situation. It will not, of course, prepare the learner for unpredicted communicative needs.

## 4 PROBLEMS IN THE ANALYSIS OF SPEECH ACTS

Obvious practical problems present themselves to the teacher who is given a class of pupils who have different needs. This has led to a policy of specialisation in language teaching, whereby pupils are grouped according to their individual communicative needs.

In schools where English is used as the medium of instruction, the catch-phrase, "every teacher is a teacher of English" has led to a policy of Language Across the Curriculum. Teachers of all subjects now recognise that they have a responsibility towards their pupils' linguistic needs.

More specifically, the analysis of speech acts, however exhaustive, cannot predict all the realisations of each speech act. This is because speech acts are often dependent on their social context for successful realisation. For example, the sentence, "I like the scent you are waring" appears to be a compliment. But if that is all that a man says to a woman whom he is dating, it may be both intended and taken as an insult. "What about the rest of me?" she will say to herself. In that context a more sweeping compliment such as, "You look lovely" would be needed.

In addition, sarcasm is usually dependent on context for its choice and interpretation. "You smell wonderful" (to continue the theme of our example) may be an expression of strong approval if the person to whom it is spoken has stepped out of a fragrant bath. On the other hand, it would be a sarcastic comment to someone who has been peeling onions.

Earlier on, a list of ways warning someone against doing something was given. The variety of choices for expressing almost all speech acts is very wide in English. For example, the speech act of telling someone to do something takes the form of a command, but may be expressed in many different ways depending on the degree of authority of the speaker and the formal/informal context of the communicative event. Some expressions may be extremely indirect, given strong shared understandings between speaker and hearer (in the case over the page about tea drinking).

Such non-explicit illocutionary acts are performed without the use of a performative verb. They are said to have the **illocutionary force** of the performative verb.

Would you make some tea please?

Will you put on the kettle?

I think we need a break.

What's the time?

Make some tea!

Are you making some tea?

Is it teatime?

How about some tea?

This may not seem particularly important in the context of making a cup of tea. However, it would be important for a **servant** to grasp the illocutionary force of the utterance. In a more urgent situation, shall we say a nurse approaching a doctor with the words, "The patient's breathing is failing", to which the doctor replies, "I think he should have oxygen", it would be vital for the nurse to realise that the doctor was commanding and not opinioning.

Information structure has important implications for interpreting the illocutionary force of an utterance. For example, the following sentences have the same propositional content, but different intentions:

Because I was unfairly victimised, I resigned.

I resigned because I was unfairly victimised

The first has the illocutionary force of explanation, whereas the second is an assertion. This change is achieved by topicalising first the reason, and secondly the result.

Stress and intonation in English are different from any other languages (Lanham 1984), and play a vital role in the realisation of speech acts. Stress is used pragmatically to draw attention to information which the speaker wishes to emphasise, but it may do more than this. The statement, "The door is open", may, given stress on "is", be an **affirmation** in reply to a question. However, if someone is looking for the source of a draught and this sentence is spoken with stress on "door", it would be intended as a direction to close the door. Again, realisation of the illocutionary force of the speech act depends on the context of the utterance.

Falling tone, usually assigned to statements and commands, may be used with question forms to give a command or instruction with added emphasis. For example, "Are you going to be quiet?" with a rising tone on the last stressed syllable would require a yes or no reply. However, if "quiet" is assigned a falling tone, the sentence becomes a command to be quiet, but with the added emphasis: "because if you're not going to be quiet, I'll punish you", which would be intended to be taken as a warning or threat. As with a command, this pragmatic use of tone would only be appropriate when spoken by someone in authority (e.g. adult to child) who would enforce the command.

Rising tones, usually assigned to the final stressed syllable of questions or which may be used at the end of tone units to signal incompleteness in a sentence, can be applied to statements to produce a similar effect to a tag-question. It produces the speech act of questioning what another person is doing, often even the motives behind the action. The statement "You're going home", with a rising tone on the final stressed syllable might mean, "I see you're going home. That is unexpected. Please explain." It seems to need more than merely a yes or no answer.

Falling and rising tones may also signal the end or the beginning of a topic line in spoken discourse, which would be important contributions to the "phatic functions" (in Hymes' sense) of English.

Another important aspect of the realisation of speech acts is the use of metaphor. Metaphor is commonly cliché-ridden and possible to interpret unequivocally. "You're beating your head against a brick wall" is clearly a warning not to go on doing something. "That is a feather in your cap" is a compliment praising an achievement as being worthwhile. However, metaphor is subject to constant development and innovation (this does not refer to the mixing of metaphors). "That book is a waste-paper basket" must be interpreted afresh as a condemnation of the book, not that this would be difficult to do, but more complex images, such as, "He was a bit of a flamingo" need some thought and background knowledge of the appearance and habits of a flamingo.

Metaphor is profoundly a part of speech acts. Consider for example the expression of obligation, "It's my baby", of disapproval, "I wouldn't touch it with a barge pole", of approval, "You're a gem", or of consent, "I'll go along with that". Each of these requires knowledge of the use of common metaphors in English in order for the speaker's intention to be correctly taken. Mother tongue English speakers share a knowledge of this vast store of allusions, which the second language learner will need to analyse and learn afresh, or else request an explanation in more literal terms from the speaker. The converse of this problem is the pupil's translation of metaphor from his or her mother tongue directly into English. While this may at times result in novel metaphorical imagery, it may also result in "mother tongue interference", failing in translation to communicate the intended message. An example of this is the request in Xhosa for someone to speak plainly which, directly translated, is the command "Hamba ze" ("Go naked").

## 5 CONCLUSION

The identification and analysis of speech acts has led to a greater understanding of communication, and has led to a change from the use of rational to the use of functional criteria for the selection and ordering of items in language syllabi. In effect, this constitutes a complete revolution in language teaching, and it took place in less than two decades. The fact that many speech acts are pragmatically derived has also guided educationalists to develop a communicative methodology in which the context presents a realistic language task for the learner in order to prompt him or her to exploit the available resources of communication.

Pragmatics relies on the learner knowing certain principles or guide lines (not strong enough to be classified as rules) for encoding and interpreting language in context. Examples of the ability to identify sarcasm, to exploit the rules for stress and intonation, and to interpret and use metaphorical language without resorting to translation to and from the mother tongue, have been identified as important pragmatic knowledge. It has been shown that there are many devices to indicate the function of the utterance (explicit speech act), but these may signal either an illocutionary act through which a perlocutionary act is intended and effected, or else an illocutionary act which, in a given context, is intended to perform a different illocutionary act (indirect speech acts).

A language syllabus which attempts to address the question "What do you know when you know a language?" must incorporate functional and pragmatic uses of the grammar of the language. Without these applications, the linguistic systems provide only a potential for communication, leaving a huge gap for the learner to cross unaided.

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# Designing an Afrikaans (third language) communicative syllabus[1]

N. Rousseau

M.S. Odendaal

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When the new communicative syllabuses for Afrikaans as a third language were introduced in the primary schools in Transkei the problem arose: the teachers who had to implement the syllabuses were not trained in the communicative approach. A communicative syllabus had to be designed for teacher training colleges to train teachers in the methodology as well as improve their proficiency in Afrikaans.
This paper describes the needs analysis that was conducted as the basis for the syllabus and gives an outline of the syllabus that was designed.

Toe die nuwe kommunikatiewe sillabusse in Afrikaans as 'n derde taal in die primêre skole in Transkei ingevoer is, het dit tot die volgende ernstige probleme gelei: Die onderwysers wat die nuwe sillabusse moes gebruik was nie opgelei in die kommunikatiewe benadering nie. 'n Kommunikatiewe sillabus moes dus ontwerp word in die onderwyserskolleges om die onderwysers in die metodologie op te lei sowel as om hulle taalvaardigheid in Afrikaans te verbeter.
Hierdie artikel beskryf die behoefte-analise wat as 'n basis in die sillabus gedien het en beskryf in breë trekke die sillabus wat ontwerp is.

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## 1 PROBLEM

The problem on which this investigation focused was created when new communicative syllabuses for Afrikaans L3 were implemented in several departments of Education (Transkei in 1985 and the Department of Education and Training in 1986/7) while the teachers of Afrikaans in these departments were not familiar with the communicative approach. The syllabuses for the colleges where teachers were trained were based on the structural approach accentuating grammatical structures. A communicative syllabus for teacher training colleges had therefore to be designed to train students to implement the new school syllabuses effectively. An additional complication was the teachers' poor command of Afrikaans which led to a breakdown in communication between them and their pupils and to high failure rates in the subject.

## 2 AIMS

The aims were as follows:

1. To design a syllabus which would equip future teachers of Afrikaans (as third language) with the ability to implement effectually the communicative syllabuses for primary and secondary schools in Transkei.
2. To design a syllabus that would optimally raise the teacher trainees' proficiency in Afrikaans.

Yalden says (1983:88) that the context of a syllabus is determined by the language needs of a target group which are established by means of a needs analysis. In addition, cognizance must be taken of the constraints which restrict the implementation of the syllabus.

Consequently, in order to design an effective communicative syllabus for an Afrikaans course at teachers' colleges in Transkei, thorough needs and constraints analyses of the target group had to be made.

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[1] Compiled from: *Afrikaans for Transkei* (Institute for Language Teaching, University of Stellenbosch).

The syllabus would contain

- a proficiency component;
- a method component to train teacher trainees in communicative approaches, and
- a component for testing communicative proficiency.

## 3 ASSIGNED TASKS

In the research proposal, the researcher was assigned the following tasks:

- to establish the language needs of senior primary and secondary teachers of Afrikaans L3 in Transkei;
- to consult literature on the design of syllabuses;
- to study the syllabuses for Afrikaans of other departments and the new communicative syllabus for primary and secondary schools in Transkei;
- to obtain (by means of questionnaires and observation), a detailed description of the target group: senior primary and secondary teachers of Afrikaans L3, and first-year students in teacher training colleges;
- to conduct interviews with lecturers at teacher training colleges;
- to assess the proficiency of teachers and first year students;
- to identify the constraints in teacher training colleges which might impair the effective development and eventual successful presentation of a course;
- to design a syllabus for Afrikaans L3 for teacher trainees; the syllabus would act as a basis for a three-year training programme of teachers who would become responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans L3 to senior primary as well as secondary school children.

Although this project was directed primarily at the Republic of Transkei, the syllabus for Afrikaans L3 would be available to any other teachers' college which might request it.

## 4 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The composition and size of a representative random sample was established scientifically and it was decided to direct the research project at teachers responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans in senior primary, junior and senior secondary schools, and at first-year students at teachers' training colleges.

Data were obtained through relevant literature, observation, in-depth interviews, questionnaires, and a language proficiency test.

Twenty-six senior primary and secondary schools in the Republic of Transkei were visited from 12-24 May 1986 to observe Afrikaans lessons taught by teachers responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans. The 26 schools represented 4 of the 29 inspectorates in Transkei. These 4 inspectorates were selected on a random basis: one from each of 4 geographical areas in Transkei.

Considerations which influenced the selection of schools, standards and lessons were whether Afrikaans was compulsory from Std. 3 to 7, whether it was an elective subject in the senior school, whether the school was accessible, whether there was a sufficient number of teachers teaching Afrikaans in the higher standards, and whether the school could be visited during the nine days the researcher had at her disposal.

Six of the nine teacher training colleges in Transkei were visited for observation. They were also selected at random to accommodate language influences as well as rural-urban differences.

Structured in-depth interviews were conducted at training colleges with 9 lecturers responsible for Afrikaans. These interviews were valuable as a means of establishing proficiency, attitude and in identifying specific problems related to the teaching of Afrikaans in Transkei.

Interviews were also conducted with the rectors of 4 colleges. These interviews were especially valuable in obtaining information in administrative procedures which might influence the structure of the Afrikaans course.

The relevant literature that was consulted was drawn from sources referring to the language situation in Southern Africa, the teaching of Afrikaans in black communities in Southern Africa, especially in Transkei, comparable and related investigations, and second and third language syllabuses currently used in Southern Africa.

**Questionnaires** were sent to senior primary and secondary teachers and to first-year students at training colleges. In 1983 there were 17 779 school teachers in Transkei (Department of Education Annual Report 1983). The primary school system is the largest sub-system in Transkei's educational system, catering for 79% of the pupils. Current trends indicate that there has been a rapid increase in secondary enrolment during the past decade but that there is a shortage of teachers (Geber 1985:52).

The sample to whom the questionnaires were sent accommodated all inspectorates and all standards, with a random sample of schools in each inspectorate. Two hundred and one schools (8,58% of the universum) were considered as numerically sufficient to allow a statistical analysis. The number was proportionally divided between senior primary and senior secondary schools (173) and senior secondary schools (28). Nine hundred and fifty-three questionnaires were sent out, of which 173 were returned. This represents 74 of the 201 schools.

The colleges selected for observation were also selected for the completion of the questionnaires to first-year students. As the researchers were able to visit the six colleges, they could preside over the completion of the questionnaires, 819 in total.

Furthermore, 16 students from each of the 6 colleges were selected for oral testing. The selection was done by means of a statistical table of random numbers.

**A GAD-1 Language Proficiency Test** (copyright Pergamon), which assesses communicative accuracy, was used. It has two components – reading and writing – and assessment is made by means of a Band system.

## 5 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SYLLABUS

From the data collected from these sources, there emerged a profile of:

the position of Afrikaans in the SA situation;

the target group;

the college and school setting, and

the language needs (Afrikaans) of college students.

Specific **needs and constraints** were identified which had direct **implications** for the design of an communicative syllabus for Afrikaans as third language for teachers' training colleges.

### 5.1 The position of Afrikaans in the SA situation

Regarding the teaching of Afrikaans in black communities it was established that according to an HSRC investigation (Schuring 1983:52) 75% of the black respondents indicated that they were in favour of Afrikaans taught as a second language at school level.

From the relevant literature the following problems were identified:

- In the "homelands", national states and townships (e.g. Soweto) people are seldom exposed to Afrikaans (RAU Report Part 1 1985:166).
- Black people's attitude towards Afrikaans is influenced negatively by the political situation in the Republic of South Africa (RAU Report Part 1 1985:184 and Steyn 1980:292).
- The authorities responsible for the design of syllabuses and curriculums for black pupils often do not take into account the specific and changing needs of the black pupil (RAU Report Part 1 1985:10).

- Most teachers responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans L3 are not mother tongue speakers and do not have the necessary skills or communicative competence to teach the target language (HSRC Report No. 18 1981:131).
- Methods used by teachers are predominantly formal, with the emphasis on rote learaing and theoretical knowledge (Kroes 1978:81).
- The pupil: teacher ratio underlines the urgent need for more qualified teachers (HSRC Report No. 18 1981:130).

From a study of the relevant literature, it appeared that these problems also apply to Transkei, but, in fact, the situation is probably more critical there than in any other part of South Africa. The RAU Report Part I made special reference to the weak Afrikaans competency of Transkei students and that teaching was often conducted through the medium of English and/or Xhosa. The present research found that there were only 3 mother tongue speakers responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans at college level, and confirmed what the RAU Report had established, namely that exposure to Afrikaans as target language was almost non-existent in Transkei. Although the researcher found that the responsible officials' attitude was very positive towards the subject, the departmental policy regarding Afrikaans has not always been explicit since Transkei became independent in 1975.

### 5.2 Profile of target group

- All students had passed Std 10.
- More than half of the students had obtained an aggregate of less than 50% in the matric examination.
- The students represented different school proficiency levels in Afrikaans.
- The band mean for the students' communicative proficiency in Afrikaans was 2,941 on Carrol's 9-band scale.
- Students enjoyed little, if any, exposure to the target language outside the college.
- Students were taught Afrikaans by non-mother tongue speakers at school level.
- Most of the students were trained in the TL by non-mother tongue speakers at college level.
- Afrikaans was often taught through the medium of either English or Xhosa at school level.
- Students experienced both primary (Xhosa) and secondary (English) interference in the acquisition and use of the target language.
- The majority of the students were younger than 30 years.
- The majority of the students realized the advantage of being able to communicate in Afrikaans and were in favour of having Afrikaans as a subject in Transkei schools.
- The students from colleges situated in urban areas were more negative in attitude towards Afrikaans than the students from colleges situated in rural areas.
- The majority of the students wanted to acquire Afrikaans for the sake of communication and career purposes.

### 5.3 Profile of college setting

- The teaching time available for Afrikaans was limited, namely 4 periods per week.
- Students had no knowledge or experience of the communicative approach. The teaching of Afrikaans had thus far been formal with the emphasis on grammar and literature, rather than the active use of the language.

- There was little or no suitable support material available in Afrikaans L3 for college students.
- Facilities in the college were not always adequate; and aids were not readily available.

### 5.4 Profile of school setting

- Many students would eventually teach at levels for which they were not qualified, e.g. at Senior Secondary level.
- Newly qualified teachers would not be able to rely on help (in the teaching of communicative Afrikaans) from their older colleagues. However, if teachers should receive in-service training, the situation could change drastically.
- Newly qualified teachers would probably not teach under ideal circumstances.

### 5.5 Language needs profile

The following were identified:

#### 5.5.1 Communicative events

- Teaching lessons
- Giving instructions to pupils
- Discussion of subject requirements with colleagues
- Preparation of work schemes
- Preparation of lessons
- Marking of homework

#### 5.5.2 Communicative Activities

- Preparing notes
- Writing comments
- Reading syllabus
- Reading teachers' manual
- Reading pupils' textbooks
- Narrating stories
- Explaining difficult words

#### 5.5.3 Language functions

Only 19,9% of the teacher respondents indicated that they used only Afrikaans as medium of instruction. It is especially in this category of macro functions that mother tongue and English were used extensively, e.g. for simplification, to define, to explain and to conclude. Whenever macro functions were expressed in the TL, the incidence of error was high. This had profound implications for the teaching of setwork, where the macro functions were of great importance. Macro functions with a high frequency were identified e.g. sequencing, using indicators, explanation by translation, indicating coherence, transaction, and defining by translation.

Micro functions of high frequency were identified, e.g. addressing, describing, giving information, asking questions, instructing and acknowledging.

However, the identification of macro and micro functions used in the third language classroom cannot be regarded as the only diagnostic method to select the content of a syllabus, as functions were often not used because the teachers' own proficiency failed him/her.

Many errors occurred in the teachers' oral output, even though they tried to adhere closely to instructions and questions where the same structure could be used repeatedly. An error analysis was made as part of the needs analysis.

## 6 CONTENTS AND FORMAT OF THE SYLLABUS

The above features of the target population and of the college and school setting, and the language constraints identified determined the contents and format of the syllabus.

### 6.1 Proficiency component

The language needs which were identified in the needs analysis viz what the student teachers needed to say in Afrikaans, formed the content of the syllabus. In other words, the functions, and language utterances that were selected for the syllabus were those that students and teachers used or needed to use in classrooms and lecture rooms in Transkei.

The first year course would raise the proficiency level of the students to survival level – viz. sufficient language skills for students to cope adequately in general contact situations with Afrikaans speakers. The second and third year course would advance students' proficiency in Afrikaans so that they would be able to cope in a wide variety of language situations.

The emphasis would fall on acquiring communicative skills. Therefore acquisition of listening-speaking skills would be of primary importance.

### 6.2 Methodology Component

The methodology of the primary and junior secondary phases would also be applicable to senior secondary communicative language teaching.
The method component would be taught through the medium of English because it was important that the students master the methodology completely. It would enable them to comprehend and apply the fundamental principles of the communicative approach and implement a syllabus for Afrikaans as third language.

## 7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Because the new syllabuses which had been introduced in schools and colleges were based on the communicative approach, certain adjustments were imperative:

- Afrikaans should be a compulsory subject at college level since it was compulsory in schools from Stds. 3 to 7. Teachers often had to teach subjects for which they had not been trained and there was a considerable shortage of qualified Afrikaans teachers in Transkei.
- It would be advisable for the non-mother-tongue speakers responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans L3 at college level to follow an intensive pre-instructional course to improve their communicative competence in the target language and to master the theory of the communicative approach.
- An adviser, well versed in the communicative approach, should visit Afrikaans teachers and lecturers regularly to provide advice and guidance. This person should liaise with the in-service training centre, the Department of Education and UNITRA.
- In-service teachers should be trained as soon as possible to implement the new syllabus.
- All departments of education which offer Afrikaans as a third language should consider a uniform communicative course for teachers' colleges.
- Prospective senior secondary school teacher trainees ought to have Afrikaans as a major.
- Instruction in the language proficiency component of the college syllabus should be given through

medium of Afrikaans; the method component should be presented in English to ensure optimum understanding.

- The number of Afrikaans periods (per week) should be determined by the Department.
- Teaching aids like overhead projectors, tape recorders, cassettes and video equipment would lend interest to teaching and should be available in every college.
- College libraries ought to contain a wide range of Afrikaans books, magazines and news papers.
- Lecturers should be well informed about teaching conditions in schools so that they will be able to prepare their students to cope with them.
- Second and third year students should be given enough opportunity to teach Afrikaans as L3 during practice teaching sessions.
- Prospective teacher trainees should be encouraged to take Afrikaans as subject in order to acquire an acceptable level of language proficiency.
- Pass requirements: it was recommended that a sub-minimum of 50% be maintained for listening and speaking skills.
- Lecturers responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans L3 should hold a departmental meeting once a week.

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# The role of error correction in communicative second language teaching

H. Ludolph Botha

According to recent research, correction of errors in both oral and written communication does little to aid language proficiency in the second language. In the Natural Approach of Krashen and Terrell the emphasis is on the acquisition of informal communication. Because the message and the understanding of the message remain of utmost importance, error correction is avoided. In Suggestopedia where the focus is also on communication, error correction is avoided as it inhibits the pupil.

Onlangse navorsing het getoon dat die verbetering van foute in beide mondelinge en skriftelike kommunikasie min bydra tot beter taalvaardigheid in die tweede taal. In die *Natural Approach* van Krashen en Terrell val die klem op die verwerwing van informele kommunikasie, want die boodskap en die verstaan daarvan bly verreweg die belangrikste; die verbetering van foute word vermy. In Suggestopedagogiek, waar die klem ook op kommunikasie val, word die verbetering van foute vermy omdat dit die leerling beperk.

## INTRODUCTION

For decades teachers of second languages have been providing feedback in the form of error correction to learners, both in oral and written communication. They have done this without really questioning the validity of this kind of feedback as a means of improving the process of L2 acquisition and L2 proficiency in general. Most of the time, errors are corrected by teachers with the vague hope that the learner will register the error and rectify it when the same structure is again used.

Unfortunately the effect of this kind of feedback has not been very successful, or rather noticeably successful. Pupils seem to glance at the teacher, repeat the phrase the teacher corrected, and carry on with substantially less confidence and fluency. When written work is received after the teacher has corrected (marked) it, a similar reaction is observable with the pupils quickly glancing at the essay to see how many red markings are visible and, if it was given a mark, to see what mark she/he received, after which the essay is swiftly put away to be forgotten as soon as possible – especially if the effort of the student was not met with much enthusiasm by the teacher. Miele (1982:81) quoted a student who had the following to say about error correction:

> "They (i.e. the teachers) had a no-nonsense attitude about error. They rooted it out and beat it to death on the spot. It was a kind of holy war these fanatics waged, and the standing orders they had were to shoot the infidels on sight. What they didn't understand was that we students usually made no emotional distinction between my error and me; when our teacher clobbered one, regardless of his good intentions, he clobbered the other. Traditional classrooms have often been, and are still today battlefields – battlefields where casualties run heaviest among students, especially the not so bright students, who venture to

> participate in classroom activities. To raise your hand is to risk humiliation, the humiliation of being wrong in front of everybody. The ranks of the humiliated often form in the back of the classroom, where interests alien to the educational enterprise tend to develop, and where some stay to sleep. Those who have been most humiliated drop out."

One of the most alarming aspects concerning error correction is the amount of time spent by teachers marking thousands of essays. It is, therefore, quite understandable that researchers (and teachers) would like to ascertain whether all this time is spent productively as far as the language development of the pupils is concerned. If error correction does not make a significant contribution towards the pupils' acquisition of, and proficiency in the L2, this practice must be seriously reconsidered and be replaced by a more useful activity.

## ERROR CORRECTION IN GENERAL

Wilga Rivers (1983:53) had the following to say about the matter:

> "Nothing is more dampening of enthusiasm and effort than constant correction when students are trying to express their own ideas within the limitations of their newly acquired knowledge of the language."

Caleb Gattegno (in Blair 1982:194), the developer of the Silent Way, had the following to say:

> "(My students) are allowed to try their hand and to make mistakes in order to develop their own criteria of rightness, correctness, and adequacy . . . Correction is seldom part of the teacher's work."
>
> "To require perfection at once is the great imperfection of most teaching and most thinking about teaching."

According to Holley and King (1969:81-88) overt correction is not only unnecessary, but definitely inadvisable and even harmful to the learners of the L2. According to Robb and Ross (1986:83-84) studies indicate that teachers of content subjects focus their attention on facts and concepts, whilst L2 teachers focus primarily on the technicalities of the language and not on the functional content of the language. The focusing on errors and the structure of the language is in direct opposition to Krashen's viewpoint that the focus should always be on the message (Krashen and Terrell 1983:1). Furthermore, the teachers provide indiscriminate feedback to the pupils, unaware of the types of errors occurring, and this makes it impossible to provide suitable remedial work (Robb and Ross 1986:84).

It is important to be aware of the fact that most L2 syllabi have been, until very recently (and some are still today), based upon the behavourist model of L2 learning which demands a stimulus-response approach emphasizing drilling, practising (often out of context) and repetition in order to memorize as much language as possible. Brumfit (1984:57) referred to Corder (1975) who stated that:

> ". . . error will be an inevitable part of the process of second-language development, and the behaviourist view that errors inevitably reinforce errors must be modified in the light of the research findings of the last twenty years."

Many of the teachers are probably still holding on to this behaviouristic approach correcting all errors to avoid the fossilization of the typical errors made by L2 learners. According to the latest research (Blair 1982; Brumfit 1984), the emphasis of errors is doing exactly what the teachers want to avoid, viz the fossilization of the errors. The reason is probably the fact that the attention is constantly drawn to those errors.

This applies especially to the correction of errors in oral communication.

## ERROR CORRECTION IN ORAL COMMUNICATION

Most researchers are in agreement that pupils should not be interrupted in their speech to correct an error made by that particular pupil. Terrell (in Blair 1982:165) stated:

> ". . . there is no evidence which shows that the correction of speech errors is necessary or even helpful in language acquisition."

Krashen and Terrell (1983:177) elaborated:

> "Our view is that overt error correction of speech even in the best of circumstances is likely to have a negative effect on the students' willingness to try to express themselves."

Unfortunately many teachers still find it very difficult to keep quiet when they hear an error in a pupil's speech. They feel some kind of compulsion to assist and to guide the pupil to produce near perfect L2, which cannot be expected of any L2 speaker still acquiring the language. Brumfit (1984:57) mentioned that it may even be perceived as being rude when the teacher butts in to correct an error and it definitely distracts from the message the speaker wants to communicate.

Most teachers will probably agree that it is much easier to refrain from the correction of speech errors, than refraining from the correction of written errors.

## ERROR CORRECTION IN WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

In recent years, more and more researchers (Blair, Brumfit, Krashen) have been investigating the practice of correcting errors, and have reached the conclusion that it does nothing to promote the acquisition of the L2. However, the role of error correction in written work has been avoided to some extent. The reasons are probably manifold, but the influence of behaviouristic syllabi, the teaching methods which have been used to teach the contents of those syllabi and the uncertainty what to *do* about those errors, might have contributed to the avoidance of this very pertinent question.

Robb and Ross (1986:83-93) reported on some recent research they conducted on the effect of error correction on written work. In their article "Salience of Feedback on Error Correction and Its Effect on EFL Writing Quality" they referred to some other studies like that of Semke (1984) who found that overt correction of pupil writing tended to have negative effects on the quality of the pupils' writing, as well as on the pupils' attitude toward writing in the target language (Robb and Ross 1986:84-85).

Robb and Ross (1986) investigated the relative merits of direct and indirect feedback by comparing four types of error treatment. The feedback varied in that it ranged from very direct to progressively less salient feedback. The hypothesis they tested was that more salient error-feedback treatments would have a significant effect on improving the student's overall writing quality (Robb and Ross, 1986:85). The following feedback treatments were used:

- correction group: all papers were completely corrected and the students had to re-write the compositions building in the errors the teacher corrected;
- coded feedback group: the papers were marked in an abbreviated code system and a guide had to be used to revise the errors;
- uncoded feedback group: the location of errors was marked with a yellow text-marking pen with no more feedback provided;
- marginal feedback group: the number of errors per line was written in the margin of the composition.

The statistically verified results indicated that the assumption that overt correction of errors will result in more accurate writing was not demonstrated.

According to Robb and Ross (1986:88) the monumental amount of time and effort spent on the correction of errors is not worth it: "In general, the more direct methods of feedback do not tend to produce results commensurate with the amount of effort required of the instructor to draw the student's attention to surface errors." An interesting finding of this research was that the marked improvement in the written skills of the students could be attributed to more opportunities to practise their writing, regardless of the method of feedback used by the instructors (Robb and Ross 1986:89).

## THE ROLE OF ERROR CORRECTION IN THE NATURAL APPROACH AND SUGGESTOPEDIA

It is worth noting what is said about error correction in two relatively recent communicative language teaching approaches. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983:177), who developed the *Natural Approach*, error correction is aimed at learning which is aimed at a more formal knowledge of the language and at something which is learned consciously ("talking about the language"). In the Natural Approach the emphasis is on acquisition which is informal communication ("talking in the language"). Learning is not discarded, but can actually only take place after a considerable amount of L2 has been acquired. Error correction per se is avoided on these grounds, but the message and understanding of the message remain of the utmost importance. Therefore, reformulations and expansions are used to make sure that the communication is understood (Krashen and Terrell 1983:178).

On the other hand, the Natural Approach provides activities when the focus is on learning, i.e. the studying of the grammar, rules and the structure of the language in general. During these sessions errors may be looked at, but then it remains a question whether it really assists with accuracy. According to Robb and Ross (1986:85) both Corder (1981) and Brumfit (1980) believe that learners will retain feedback only if they are forced to approach error correction as a problem-solving activity. This means that pupils can discuss and tease out errors in a given piece and benefit from it.

In Suggestopedia overt error correction is avoided at all times because it inhibits and gives rise to a feeling of degradation in the pupils. Furthermore, in Suggestopedia it is very important to boost self-confidence and once again the focus is on communication and not on correct speech production (Botha 1986:142). It is believed that correctness (accuracy) will follow after enough of the L2 has been acquired and when the pupils can communicate quite freely and spontaneously. It is important for the teacher to be aware of errors and to adapt his/her teaching accordingly to model correct language in a very covert way.

But, because anxiety must be eliminated, a teacher will not avoid a direct question concerning an error or grammar in particular. Proponents of Suggestopedia feel that it is more important to provide the accurate answers and explanations of rules than to cause anxiety by avoiding these questions of pupils.

## THE ROLE OF EVALUATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON ERROR CORRECTION

The role of evaluation in L2 teaching and its effect on error correction must not be underestimated. Most schools demand of their teachers control of oral, as well as written work, and regular evaluation as measurable and visible end-results of the teachers' input. This encourages the already overworked (probably because of all the marking) teachers to kill two birds with one stone, viz to control (mark) and to evaluate simultaneously. This is a most unsatisfactory situation because evaluation becomes the main focus point while good, sound teaching receives less and less attention. Teachers setting written work, e.g. compositions, should not do that to accumulate marks, but should provide opportunities for the learners to practise written communication skills. Robb and Ross (1986) indicated in their article that the regular practising caused the improvement of the written skills of their subjects, and not the feedback coming from the teacher.

It is clear that all teachers, planners and advisers must think hard about where the emphasis, of especially written communication, should fall. In communicative language teaching the focus should be (even more than other subjects) on the process, rather than on the end-product. Language is a developmental process and if we constantly measure (evaluate), we will surely stifle and inhibit this natural process of acquisition – especially in those pupils whose marks are not as promising at first.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

From these studies it seems that the direct correction of both oral and written errors must be reconsidered. Improved strategies, replacing these time-consuming and futile exercises, could be developed to provide optimal teaching (input) to the learners which could promote optimal L2 acquisition and proficiency.

According to Krashen (1982:21) input is the best way to ensure acquisition and then the focus must be on meaning and not on accuracy. Input coming in the form of reading is probably one of the best ways to provide rich input in the written form. The learner will find the reading material an acceptable model to use as a norm for his/her own written language development – not his/her own "practice" attempts (compositions) with the teacher's intruding red markings trying to perfect his efforts. That does not mean that students cannot read one another's attempts. Surely that is a legitimate way of communicating with somebody and teachers should encourage more spontaneous written communication amongst the students where the focus is on the message. We put our students on lean diets of L2 input and expect miracles when we test and re-test. Krashen (1982:71) reacted as follows in response to this matter:

> ". . . the profession has seriously underestimated the amount of comprehensible input necessary to achieve even moderate, or intermediate levels of proficiency in second language acquisition."

Robb and Ross (1986:91) advised that the teacher must, instead of correcting errors, respond with comments that will turn the students back to the initial stages of writing the composition. Brumfit (1984:86) asked whether teachers of the L2 should not provide more opportunities for genuine writing which will allow more scope for creativity, rather than always focusing on accuracy. He referred to the gap between L1 writers and L2 writers with the mother tongue writers far more creative because they are not so bogged down by this mania to produce hundred percent accurate written work.

The most feasible strategy seems to be the following: Provide as many opportunities as possible to L2 learners to communicate in a real life situation in writing (as well as orally) without any attention given to accuracy, unless it hampers comprehensibility. For the teacher the errors are of paramount importance and correct models should be provided. Brumfit's (1980) and Corder's (1981) (in Robb and Ross 1986) suggestion could be built into the programme, viz to select short sections out of pupils' work (warning the pupil(s) beforehand to avoid any embarrassment) and to get the class to analyze them in small groups. During this analysis the pupils will focus consciously on the errors and try and provide the correct words, structures or sentences. The piece remains nameless, it is short and manageable and the group works together to rectify it in an activity which is like a game. (There can be a competition between the groups to see who can rectify the most errors.)

It is strongly recommended that teaching oral and written communication should be separated from evaluating oral and written communication. Only after a significant amount of teaching has taken place, can one very cautiously consider covert, low-keyed evaluation which the pupils should be unaware of, because it really only tells the teacher how effective (or ineffective) his/her teaching has been.

For many years it was believed that the only way to master another language was to sit and memorize list upon list and to study the grammar in all its details. Those who "picked up" a language informally were considered the exceptions and lucky ones. Now we know that if you really want to teach a language properly, you must simulate communicative situations where the learners can be exposed to real input with the focus on the message – understanding what is being communicated. It seems almost too easy and informal, though, research indicates more and more that it is at least the essential basis (and force behind communication) for the acquisition of another language.

Error correction could be equated to this same pattern. It was believed that long hours of marking (correcting all the errors) was part of the tremendously tedious work of getting perfection in oral and written communication. Perfection is now considered to be a relative accomplishment, and that communication in real life situations will probably do significantly more towards the improvement of the students' L2 proficiency.

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# New publications … Nuwe publikasies

## Reviews

**Barry McLaughlin**

*Theories of Second-Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold, 1987. (184 pp.)

Professor McLaughlin is Chairman of the Psychology Board of Studies at the University of California and has several articles on theories and research in second language learning to his credit, as well as two recent publications: *Second-Language Acquisition in Childhood*, Volume I (1984) and Volume II (1985).

It is difficult to escape the impression that in the last 15-20 years there has been a plethora of publications concerned with the process of language learning. This no doubt reflects the universal need to learn a second language and the resultant need for second language teachers of both children and adults. Rod Ellis's contribution: *Understanding Second Language Acquisition* (1985) represents something of a milestone in this field, and any work that can measure up to its excellent standard, surely deserves recognition. Wolfgang Klein also supplied a broader overview in his *Second Language Acquisition* (1986). McLaughlin's approach is somewhat different, as he indicates in his preface:

> "This book is about theory and the role of theory in research on *adult* second-language learning. My principal goal is to examine what position theory plays in this growing subfield of applied linguistics and to evaluate present theories. Particular attention is paid to methodological issues and to the question of how theoretical concepts are translated into empirical procedures." (p. vii)

In his introductory chapter, McLaughlin offers three assumptions which determine his approach:

1. Research is inseparable from theory.
2. There is no one scientific method.
3. There is no single scientific proof.

He sees the functions of theories as being three-fold:

> "First, they allow us to understand and organize the data of experience. Theories summarize relatively large amounts of information via a relatively short list of propositions. Second, theories transform our thinking about phenomena and enable researchers to use empirical data to draw conclusions that are not evident from the data taken in isolation . . . Third, theories guide prediction and stimulate research." (p. 154)

Having separated theories into two types: deductive and inductive, he specifies four criteria for evaluating theory:

1. The theory must have definitional precision and explanatory power.
2. The theory must be consistent with what is currently known.
3. The theory must be heuristically rich in its predictions.
4. The theory must be falsifiable.

Having outlined these perspectives, McLaughlin proceeds to a description and a critical assessment of five theories, which he considers to be "in the mainstream of second-language research".

The first of these is Krashen's by now very familiar Monitor Model. The author regards it as "the most ambitious theory of the second-language learning process". His evaluation of it is particularly harsh but it is difficult to fault his reasoning. While giving Krashen credit for bringing together research findings from different domains, he disagrees with his interpretation of these findings. His principal objections are that the acquisition-learning distinction is not clearly defined and it is impossible to determine which process is operating in a particular case. He finds the Monitor severely restricted in its application and the Natural Order Hypothesis a particularly weak one as it "postulates that some things are learned before others, but not always". The Input Hypothesis he regards as untestable as "no definition is given of the key concept, 'comprehensible input'". He finds that there is no basis for relating the affective filter to individual differences in language learning and further faults Krashen for not defining his terms precisely and for his theory not being clear in its predictions. What has made Krashsen's ideas so attractive is that they are so readily accessible to practitioners, but this has unfortunately led to many teachers accepting his theories as Gospel, thus doing a disservice to the field of language learning.

Krashen's theories are deductive: they attempt to provide a view of the 'whole picture' of second language learning, based on deductions from a small set of basic principles. Thus they invoke theoretical constructs that are remote from empirical data and only indirectly tied to observations. For this reason, too, they are wide open to criticism and 'Krashen-bashin' is in fashion. The remaining four theories McLaughlin considers are all of the inductive type – theories arising from empirical observation, building "low-level or intermediate-level constructs before jumping to conclusions about the larger picture". They account only for phenomena where repeated observations show the same behavioural pattern.

The first of these theories is Interlanguage theory. After discussing its origins and characteristics, the author turns to recent developments and considers the following major issues:

1. How systematic and how variable is the interlanguage?
2. How are interlanguages acquired?
3. What is the role of the first language?

In his evaluation of this theory, he notes that it has had a relatively minor impact on pedagogy, as research has mainly been concerned with *describing* learners' interlanguage systems. While early research produced premature generalizations, subsequent research has stayed closer to the data and is now focusing on the process of interlanguage development. If the theory has only been partially successful, it has made clear the inadequacies of a rigid behaviourist-structuralist approach and has brought about a transformation of thinking about a number of second language phenomena. Most important is that it has generated some "interesting and testable hypotheses" concerned with the "linguistic, sociolinguistic and psychological processes that underlie inter-language development". It is to these three processes that McLaughlin devotes his next three chapters.

Linguistic universals are considered in Chapter 4. Two approaches are noted: the typological approach stresses the comparison between languages in its search for linguistic universals, "analysing data from a representative sample of the world's languages in order to extract universal patternings" and describe possible variations. The problems are finding a sample that is truly representative of actual world languages, and demonstrating the empirical validity of putative linguistic universals. The second approach, proposed by Chomsky, assumes that the first language learner "comes to the acquisition task with innate, specifically linguistic knowledge, or Universal Grammar." McLaughlin believes that both approaches hold a great deal of promise for clarifying our understanding of interlanguage development and transfer.

Chapter 5 deals with Acculturation/Pidginization theory, in which the emphasis has shifted to sociolinguistic and social psychological factors in the second language learning process. There appears to be a relationship between acculturation and degree of success in learning the target language. Acculturation is seen as an adaptational process requiring modification in attitudes, knowledge and behaviour. Part of the process involves learning the appropriate linguistic habits of the target language. Pidginization represents a fossilization in the acculturation process. But are the processes involved in pidgins and creoles similar to those that occur in second language learning? This theory is concerned with why second language learners often fail to master the target language. It involves factors such as social distance, attitude towards the target language and motivation to learn. McLaughlin accepts that this theory has enriched second language research, but notes that it is not relevant to classroom second language learning, "where learners do not have contact with native speakers other than the teacher". At present there is not enough information to validate or falsify the theory.

The author finally turns to Cognitive theory, which views second language learning as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill and the automatization of component sub-skills. It stresses "the limited information-processing capacities of human learners, the use of various techniques to overcome these limitations" and the role of practice in routinizing component skills. While admitting his positive bias towards this theory, McLaughlin nevertheless notes a number of its limitations, e.g. the assumption that the acquisition of any complex cognitive skill parallels second language acquisition. Cognitive theory needs to be linked to theories of L2 acquisition, as on its own it cannot explain many of the linguistic constraints implied in other theories. Furthermore, it cannot make precise predictions for L2 learning, nor can its propositions be falsified. On the other hand, criticism is premature and "cognitive theory has been heuristically rich and deserves to be pursued".

In a concluding chapter, the author briefly considers the role of theory in L2 research and discusses the influence of theory on the choice of research methods. He advocates an integrated approach to L2 teaching "that incorporates both the more creative aspects of language learning and the more cognitive aspects that are susceptible to guidance and training".

It must be said that this is a most authoritative work which makes a major contribution to the field of second language learning. It succeeds admirably in stimulating critical thinking about the various theories discussed, as well as about the general nature and role of theory in L2 research. Although the author states in his preface that readers do not require an "extensive background" in this field, they do need to be reasonably well informed. This book has the virtue of being comprehensive and up to date, and while many of the issues raised in it are as yet unresolved, it certainly sharpens the reader's awareness of just how varied, dynamic and controversial the field of second language learning is.

J.J. Swartz

**Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers**

*Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A description and analysis.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986. (171 pp.)

When skimming through the list of contents in this publication, one inevitably recalls the earlier work of Robert Blair: *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching* (Newbury House, 1982), for it appears to cover much the same ground. However, a closer perusal reveals several fundamental differences in organization, purpose and approach. Blair, as editor, allows the various advocates of the Silent Way, the Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning, the Natural Approach and Suggestopedia (approaches covered in both books) to write in support of methods they have designed or developed themselves. Further, in the earlier volume, these approaches are classified according to whether, for example, they apply to an acquisition or a learning environment. Blair then devotes the last section of this book to an integrated approach to language teaching: an eclectic use of the methods described in the earlier sections.

Richards (well-known for his work on error analysis in the mid-seventies) and Rodgers are not primarily concerned with an evaluation of the various approaches described in their book, nor do they recommend one method in preference to another. Acknowledging from the outset that different methods appear to be based on very different views of what language is and how a language is learned, they have set out, in their own words

> ". . . to depict, organize, and analyze major and minor approaches and methods in language teaching, and to describe their underlying nature . . . to provide a detailed account of major twentieth-century trends in language teaching . . . to highlight the similarities and differences between approaches and methods." (p. vii)

To achieve this aim, they have used the same descriptive framework throughout the book (the model is presented in Chapter 2). Thus each second or foreign language teaching method is examined at three levels:

the level of approach,
the level of design, and
the level of procedure.

In Chapter 1, the authors offer a brief history of language teaching as a background for the discussion of contemporary methods. Here they note that "changes in language teaching methods throughout history" reflect "changes in the kind of proficiency learners need, such as the move towards oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study" (p. 1). The Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method are briefly considered in this context.

The title and aim of this book necessitate a closer examination of the terms "method" and "approach", which appears in Chapter 2. The authors use the scheme proposed by Anthony in 1963 as a starting point:

> ". . . An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning.
> . . . Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material . . . Within one approach there can be many methods.
> . . . A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in the classroom." (p. 15)

This classification is found wanting and the authors supply their own outline of the elements and sub-elements that constitute a method. Here they distinguish between *approach* (the theory of the nature of language and language learning), *design* (objectives, syllabus model, learner and teacher roles, the role of instructional materials and types of learning and teaching activities) and *procedure* (classroom techniques, practices and behaviours observed when the method is used). These three categories are then used consistently to describe and analyse each of the methods dealt with in the book.

Unlike Blair, Richards and Rodgers include earlier methods such as the Oral Approach, Situational Language Teaching and Audio-lingualism in their discussion. These are useful as they reveal how, as a result of the shifting of views about the nature of language and language learning, these three related methods gave rise to the development of Communicative Language Teaching. Particularly useful is their listing of 22 distinctive features of both the Audiolingual Method and Communicative Language Teaching for the purposes of contrast (pp. 67-68). The presentation of the chapter on CLT is particularly lucid and supports the conclusion that CLT "is best considered an approach rather than a method". Despite its theoretical consistency, "at the levels of design and procedure there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit" (p. 83).

The next two chapters are devoted to Total Physical Response and the Silent Way. The authors conclude that although the former method, developed by James Asher, is consistent with Krashen's views on comprehensible input and reduction of stress, it is best used in conjunction with other methods, as it offers the teacher only "a useful set of techniques". An analysis of the latter, devised by Caleb Gattegno, reveals that many of the features of the Silent Way are characteristic of more traditional methods. The innovations lie in the way in which classroom activities are organized and in the roles that teachers and learners are now required to assume.

Chapter 8 considers Charles Curran's so-called "humanistic" method: Community Language Learning. While an analysis and description of this method lead the authors to praise its "sensitivity to learner communicative intent", some grave reservations are also noted with regard to coping withlearner aggression, the training required by teachers, the lack of a syllabus and the validity of the counselling processes on which this method is based.

Tracy Terrell's Natural Approach is covered in Chapter 9, a method more evolutionary than revolutionary in its principles; one "that emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful practice activities, rather than production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences." It is followed by a closer look at Lozanov's Suggestopedia: "a method which attempts to harness man's nonrational and nonconscious influences . . . and redirect them so as to optimize learning". The authors note the dramatic claims for suggestopedic learning and the enthusiasm and critical response it has elicited. The nature of the approach is such that it is virtually impossible to prove or disprove the premises on which it is based, thus they suggest that language teachers "try to identify and validate these techniques from Suggestopedia that appear effective and that harmonize with other successful techniques in the language teaching inventory" (p. 152).

The final chapter contains useful suggestions for comparing and evaluating language teaching methods, using some of the methods described in the previous chapters as examples.

A great deal has been and doubtless will still be written about innovative methods of language teaching. Language teachers need to be made aware of recent research and of new developments in this field. This book certainly fulfils that need. There are others: I have already noted Blair's contribution in 1982 and more recently Diane Larsen-Freeman covered the same ground in *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (Oxford University Press, 1986). (The latter, however, is pitched at a much more elementary level.) I feel bound to recommend *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, for the clarity and objectivity with which it has been written, an achievement made possible by the use of the same descriptive model in presenting each method. The authors show no prejudice: in some ways their refusal to evaluate each method critically may be considered a shortcoming. However, the discerning reader will be able to reach his own conclusions and make assessments from the clear, concise treatment given to each method. Often criticism is implied in the conclusions reached at the end of each chapter, but as neither author is advocating a method which he himself developed, their analysis is consistently balanced. As most of the methods described were developed more than ten years ago, the authors are able to draw on recent research and have the benefit of a clearer perspective in their analysis of each method.

I have no doubt that this book achieves the aims the authors set themselves: "to enable teachers to become better informed about the nature, strengths, and weaknesses of methods and approaches so they can better arrive at their own judgements and decisions". Every serious second language teacher should have this excellent book on his shelf.

J.J. Swartz

# Conferences, courses and meetings Konferensies, kursusse en byeenkomste

1988

**Sixteenth World Congress of the World Federation of Foreign-Language Teachers' Association**

Place: Canberra, Australia
Date: 3-8 January 1988
Contact: Dr. D. Ingram,
AFMLTA, MLTAACT
P.O. Box 989
Canberra 2601
Australia

**University of Bristol School of Education Centre for Overseas Studies: Studying with English (preliminary announcement)**

Place: Bristol
Date: 5-6 January 1988
Contact: Mr. John Higgins
Centre for Overseas Studies
University of Bristol School of Education
35 Berkeley Square
Bristol Bs9 1JA

**Fifth Annual International Symposium**

Place: Salt Lake City Hilton
Theme: New trends in the computer-assisted language field
Date: 23-27 February 1988
Contact: CALICO
3078 JKHB, BYU, PROVO
Utah 84602
Tel. 801/378-7079

**Twenty-second Annual Conference of Teachers of English to Speakers of other Languages (TESOL)**

Place: Chicago, Illinois
Date: 10-13 March 1988

Contact:

Dr. James E. Alatis
202 DC Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington DC 20057
USA
Tel. 202/6254569

**National Conference on Modern Lanuages of the Fachverband Modernen Fremdsprachen**

Place: Munich
Date: 21-23 March 1988
Contact: Dr. F.J. Zapp
Hedwigstrasse 4
D-8000 Munich 19
Federal Republic of West Germany

**13th International SALT Conference**

Place: Phoenix, Arizona
Date: 28 April-1 May 1988
Contact: Charles Connolly
Box 1216 Welch Station
Ames
Iowa 50010

**22nd International IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language) Conference**

Place: Edinburgh, United Kingdom
Date: 11-14 April 1988
Contact: IATEFL
3 Kingsdown Chamers
Kingsdown Park
Tankerton
Whistable
Kent CT5 2DJ
United Kingdom

### Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Place: Denver, Colorado
Date: 13-16 April 1988
Contact: Gerald L. Ervin
Slavic Dept.
Ohio State University
Columbus
Ohio 43210

### 33rd IRA (International Reading Association) Annual Convention

Place: Toronto, Canada
Date: 1-5 May 1988
Contact: IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714
USA

### International Computer Exhibition

Place: Cologne
Date: 16-19 June 1988
Contact: Messe- und Ausstellungs-Ges. m.b.H
Postfach 210760
D-5000 Cologne 21
Federal Republic of West Germany

### 12th IRA World Congress

Place: Brisbane, Australia
Date: 7-10 July 1988
Contact: International
Reading Association
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714
USA
Tel. 302/7311600

### Second Jerusalem Conference on TEFL/TESOL

Place: Jerusalem, Israel
Date: 10-14 July 1988
Contact: English Teachers' Association of Israel
P.O. Box 7663
Jerusalem 91076
Israel

### European Conference on Computers in Education

Place: Lausanne, Switzerland
Date: 24-29 July 1988
Contact: ECCE 1988
Prof. Bernard Levrat
Centre Universitaire d'Informatique
12, Rue du Lac
CH-1207 Geneva
Switzerland

### International Conference of the United Kingdom Reading Association

Place: Leicester, UK
Date: 24-30 July 1988
Contact: C.M. Hunter-Carsch
School of Education
University of Leicester
Leicester
LE1 7RH, UK

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*MET* Vol. 14 no. 4.

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*The Canadian Modern Language*

*The Linguist* Vol. 26 No. 3, Summer 1987

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1 The focus of the journal is on issues of language teaching, learning and acquisition, especially as related to communicative needs of multi-cultural, multi-lingual Southern Africa.

Authors are invited to submit contributions (only one original copy is required) on

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- cross-cultural communication
- the effect of language teaching and learning on productivity and human relations
- technology in language teaching and learning
- innovative approaches to language teaching and learning, and
- training and in-service training programmes.

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5 Format of manuscripts for publication: Typewritten, double-spaced throughout, on one side of the paper, with two and a half centimetres of margin at the left. Foot-notes should be avoided and essential notes should be numbered in the text and grouped at the end of the article. References for an article should not be interspersed with notes. A standard format (Harvard method) for complete references is to be used.

6 Authors' full names and complete mailing addresses should appear on the first page of each article.

7 When an article is published by a group of authors under the name of an organization, the name and address of each author should be provided.

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9 The inclusion of an English abstract for each article is required.

10 The deadline for submitting articles for the first semester edition is the 30th of September of the previous year; articles for the issue of the second semester must be received before 31st of March of the previous year.

11 Articles should, as a rule, not exceed 20 pages of A4- format paper. Longer contributions might be considered for special issues of PER LINGUAM.

12 Evaluation of articles is done by at least two specialist referees.

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1 Die tydskrif fokus op taalonderrig, taalaanleer en taalverwerwing, veral met betrekking tot die kommunikatiewe behoeftes van 'n veelvolkige, veeltalige Suidelike Afrika.

Skrywers word genooi om bydraes te lewer (slegs een oorspronklike kopie word vereis) oor

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- taalkursusse vir spesifieke of algemene behoeftes
- interkulturele kommunikasie
- die uitwerking van taalonderrig en taalaanleer op produktiwiteit en menseverhoudinge
- die rol van die tegnologie in die onderrig en aanleer van 'n taal
- nuwe benaderinge ten opsigte van taalonderrig en taalaanleer, en
- opleiding en indiensopleidingprogramme.

2 Alle bydraes moet gestuur word aan

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Republiek van Suid-Afrika

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4 Publikasietaal: Engels of Afrikaans.

5 Formaat van manuskripte vir publikasie: Getik in dubbelspasiëring aan een kant van die bladsy, met 'n kantlyn van twee en 'n half sentimeter aan die linkerkant. Voetnote moet sover moontlik vermy word en noodsaaklike notas moet in die teks genommer word en aan die einde van die teks verskyn. Verwysings moet geen notas bevat nie en moet ook aan die einde verskyn. Die Harvardmetode moet vir volledige verwysings gebruik word.

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*Call for papers*

# "Cultural key experiences"

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When visiting a foreign country or meeting members of a foreign cultural and linguistic community things do occasionally happen in a specific way because the people taking part belong to two or more different cultures and/or linguistic communities. I am sure that you, too, have experienced such situations, which I want to call cultural key experiences. They enrich or change abruptly our understanding of a foreign culture. Such sudden insights into the weaving pattern of another culture can also be imparted through instructional processes or individual reading. As single anecdotes they are of little use to anyone unless they become part of a documentation. I propose to compile just such a documentation and I would like to invite you to contribute to it.

Please write down your story and send it to us. For your story to be comparable to those of other contributors, it would be very helpful if you could bear in mind the following points:

1. Write in English, French or German.
2. Your story must not exceed 1000 words.
3. Separate description and interpretation of the related events. It is interesting to learn, why, in your opinion, it all happened the way it happened
4. If at all possible, your story should contain the following data:
   a) The data of the event (year if possible)
   b) The number of persons involved
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5. Please indicate the degree of mastery you have (excellent, very good, good etc.) of the languages and/or dialects involved, how this could have influenced the sequence of events and which other languages you speak.
6. Please use a typewriter.

With your signature you give your consent for the story to be published in book, or other form. Your authorship will be acknowledged.

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

**Dr. Udo O.H. Jung**
University of Marburg

Home address:
Markt 23
D-3550 Marburg
Federal Republic of Germany

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